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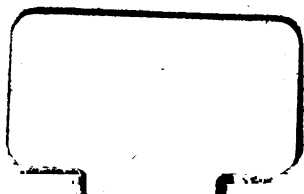
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A  
**NEW HISTORY**  
OF  
**GREAT BRITAIN;**

FROM  
THE INVASION OF JULIUS CÆSAR TO THE  
PRESENT TIME:

EXHIBITING TO THE MINDS OF YOUTH A VARIETY OF  
INSTRUCTIVE AND PLEASING INFORMATION, AND  
SOME PARTICULARS NOW FIRST ADAPTED TO THE  
CAPACITIES OF YOUNG PEOPLE OF BOTH SEXES:—  
THE WHOLE CALCULATED TO OPERATE AS MORAL  
LESSONS, WHILE IT CONTAINS EVERY LEADING  
TRAIT OF THE HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

ON A PLAN NEARLY SIMILAR TO THAT OF  
Dr. HENRY.

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By the Rev. JOHN ADAMS, A. M.  
*Author of *Lectiones Selectæ*, *Elements of Reading*, *Useful  
Knowledge*, &c.*

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LONDON:

PRINTED FOR C. LAW, -NO. 13, AVE-MARIA LANE;  
T. N. LONGMAN & O. REES, AND T. HURST,  
PATERNOSTER-BOW; BY T. SKELTON, NO. 22,  
HIGH STREET, SOUTHAMPTON.

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THE  
*HISTORY*  
OF  
GREAT BRITAIN.

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BOOK I.

*BRITISH HISTORY, LITERATURE and MANNERS.*

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CHAP. I.

FROM THE INVASION OF JULIUS CÆSAR, TO THE  
ARRIVAL OF THE SAXONS, A. D. 449.

THE earliest migration of the Gauls into Britain happened about a thousand years before the coming of our Saviour, in the reigns of David and Solomon. The first denomination of the island was Albion, (signifying heights) a name evidently conferred before it was peopled, and while its heights were only viewed at a distance from the opposite shore of Gaul. The more recent and general appellation of Britain, after all the learning that has been employed to torture it, appears to be derived from a Celtic word, denoting separation. This is a particular, which, in the natural language of the continent, has always characterized the inhabitants of our island. Virgil, in his first Eclogue, calls our ancestors

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*“ Penitus*



*“ Penitus toto divisos orbe Britannos :*

*“ The Britons quite separated from the whole world.”*

When the information of the Romans extended, with their arms, into this remote part of the globe, the geographers and historians of that illustrious people, threw some light on the island and its inhabitants. Indeed, so similar were the manners of its rude tribes to those of the opposite shores, that there is no room to doubt of a common origin for both.

Julius Cæsar, about fifty-five years before the birth of Christ, having made great progress in the conquest of Gaul, began to cast an ambitious eye on the island of Britain, and to think of adding it to the Roman empire. He is said to have been prompted to form this design, by the beauty and magnitude of the British pearls, which he greatly admired. His ostensible reason, however, was the assistance which some of the British nations had given to his enemies in Gaul.\*

In order to get some intelligence of the state of the country which he designed to invade, Cæsar convened, from different parts of Gaul, a great number of merchants who had visited this island in the way of trade, and asked them many questions concerning its dimensions, the number, power, and customs of its inhabitants, their art of war, and their harbours which were fit to receive large ships. Having received satisfactory answers, he embarked his troops at Calais, and in a few hours reached the coast of Britain, near Dover. After sailing about eight miles towards the north, he determined to land at Deal, though the British army stood ready on the shore, to give him a warm reception. As the enemy approached, the Britons, astonished at the shape and motion of the galleys, and the playing of the engines, first halted, and then began to retreat

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\* Cæsar's Commentaries.

retreat. But still many of the Roman soldiers hesitated to leave their ships, and encounter at once the waves and the brave natives; when the standard-bearer of the tenth legion, having first invoked the gods, jumped into the sea, and advancing with the eagle towards the troops, cried aloud, "Follow me, fellow-soldiers, unless you will betray the Roman eagle into the hands of the enemy: for my part I am determined to discharge my duty to Cæsar, and the commonwealth." All who beheld this heroic action, and heard the animating speech with which it was accompanied, were fired with courage and emulation, plunged into the sea, advanced towards the shore, and obliged the Britons to retire.

After concluding a peace, Cæsar returned into Gaul, and began to make preparations for a second expedition into Britain, which he undertook the next year, when the islanders agreed to pay tribute. From these expeditions, however, the Romans derived very little advantage, but a better knowledge of the island than they had before.

The Britons, at this period, were governed in time of war by a political confederacy, of which Cassibelanus, whose territories lay about Hertfordshire, was the head; and this form of government long continued to be occasionally exercised among them.

While the Romans were engaged in the horrors of civil war, Britain was entirely neglected by them, and the tribute, which had been imposed by Cæsar, was never paid. Even after Augustus had attained the peaceable possession of the whole empire, he did not think it proper to invade Britain; being probably restrained from it by his favourite maxim, "*Never to fish with a golden hook*;" that is, never to engage in an enterprise, which was likely to be more expensive than profitable.\*

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\* Tacitus.

The emperor Claudius Cæsar, however, undertook A. D. 42. and executed an expedition with little success; for Caractacus, and Boadicea, the powerful queen of the Iceni, made noble stands against the Romans. The former being at length taken prisoner, after a desperate battle, and carried to Rome, his undaunted behaviour before Claudius, gained him the admiration of the victors, and is celebrated in the histories of the times. Boadicea being oppressed in a manner that disgraces the Roman name, and defeated, disdained to *survive the liberties of her country*; and Agricola, general to Domitian, after subduing south Britain, carried his arms northwards, where his successors had no reason to boast of their progress, every inch of ground being bravely defended.

To protect the Britains from the invasions of the Caledonians, Picts, and Scots,\* the emperors Adrian and Severus built two famous walls, one between the Friths of Clyde and Forth, and the other between Tinmouth and the Solway Frith. Adrian's rampart of earth was but a slender security to the province; but Severus employed his troops, for the space of two years, in building a stupendous wall of solid stone twelve feet high, and eight feet thick, strengthened with many towers, castles, and stations at convenient distances. This prodigious wall, the vestiges of which are still visible in several places, was built nearly parallel to that of Adrian, at the distance only of a few paces to the east.

Before the Romans left the island, they assisted in repairing this wall, which had fallen to decay, through the injuries of time and of the enemy. The expence of

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\* The Caledonians were the first inhabitants of Scotland; the Picts were Britons forced northwards by the Gauls, before the descent of Julius Cæsar; and the Scots, probably, were a nation of adventurers from ancient Scythia, who had served in armies on the continent, and, after conquering the other inhabitants, gave their own name to the country.

of this work was defrayed by the chearful contributions of the more opulent inhabitants, who considered it as one of the chief means of their future safety. But as walls and bulwarks are of little use, without brave, and well-armed soldiers to defend them, the Roman general, having given the Britons exact models of the several kinds of arms, with ample instructions how to make and to use them, in defence of their country, their wives, children and liberties, departed with the few remaining Romans, after the island had been subject to them; more or less, 500 years.

The Scots and Picts finding the island finally deserted by the Roman legions, ravaged all before them with a fury peculiar to northern nations in those ages, and which a remembrance of former injuries could not fail to inspire. When they approached Severus's wall, they found it in compleat repair, and apparently well defended by armed Britons. But so little had these profited by the instructions of their late masters, that they became an easy conquest, and were soon put to flight. The enemy breaking in, like hungry wolves into a sheep-fold, pursued them with great slaughter, and drove them to the very sea. The miserable Britons, in this frightful extremity, had once more recourse to the Romans; and in their famous letter, which they called *their groans*, told them, that they had no choice left, but that of being swallowed up by the sea, or perishing by the swords of the barbarians.

Amid all their calamities, however, they had one consolation: they had embraced christianity; a religion which above all others, teaches the endurance of misfortunes, which encourages its votaries to triumph in adversity, and inspires the soul with joy in the hour of affliction. As they could receive no assistance from Rome, the Britons began to consider what other nation they might call over to their relief. Vortigern, prince of the Danimonii, then possessed the principal authority among

among them, by whose advice they agreed with two Saxon chiefs, Hengist and Horfa, to protect them from the Scots and Picts. The Saxons were in those days masters of what is now called the English Channel, and their native countries, comprehending Scandinavia, and the northern parts of Germany, being overstocked with inhabitants, they readily accepted the invitation of the Britons, whom they relieved by checking the progress of the enemy, and had the Isle of Thanet allowed them for their residence. But their own country was so barren, and the fertile lands of Britain so alluring, that in a very short time, Hengist and Horfa began to meditate a settlement for themselves; and fresh supplies of their countrymen arriving daily, the Saxons soon became formidable to the Britons, whom after a violent struggle they subdued, or drove into Wales, where their language and descendants still remain.

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## CHAP. II.

### RELIGION OF THE ANCIENT BRITONS.

**H**OW long the several nations who descended from Gomer, the son of Japhet, and in particular the ancient Gauls and Britons, continued to worship one Supreme Being, we cannot easily determine. The adoration of a plurality of gods was introduced by slow degrees, and proceeded from various causes. The different names and attributes of the true God, were, through mistake, adored as so many divinities. The sun, moon, and stars, the most striking and illustrious objects in nature, were at first viewed with great veneration, as the most glorious works and lively emblems of the Deity, and by degrees came

came to be worshipped as Gods. Princes and great men, who had been the objects of universal admiration during life, became the objects of adoration after death. The Britons had gods of all these kinds.

Offerings constituted an important part of their religion. They consisted of the most useful and excellent things, which they could procure, and which they were taught would be most agreeable to the gods. In their sacrifices they offered not only beasts, but the blood of captives taken in battle. They believed that their deities had the government of the world, and the direction of future events in their hands; and that they would, upon proper application, discover these events to their pious worshippers.\* This belief gave rise to astrology, augury, magic lots, and an infinite multitude of religious rites and ceremonies, by which they hoped to discover the counsels of heaven, with regard to themselves and their undertakings.

The priests who taught the principles, and performed the offices of religion, among the ancient Britons, were called *Druids*. They enjoyed the highest honors and privileges. So great was the veneration in which they were held, "that when two hostile armies, inflamed by warlike rage, with swords drawn and spears extended, were on the point of engaging in battle, at their intervention, they sheathed their swords, and became calm and peaceful."†

Besides the Supreme Being, the *Druids* likewise believed in an evil demon, who constantly opposed him. They believed also in *fate*, or predestination. This doctrine they inculcated with great care. They further maintained the immortality of the soul, and a state of future rewards and punishments; in either of which, every person was to have that retribution, which his good or bad conduct in life deserved. In  
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\* Pliny. † Diodorus Siculus.

this futurity, they cloathed the soul with a sort of airy vehicle, or lighter body, not altogether incapable of pleasure or pain.

Of the immortality of the soul, the Druids seem to have had a much firmer and more invariable belief than the priests or philosophers of the Greeks and Romans, who, excepting perhaps a few instances, might be said rather to wish and hope, than steadily to believe it; whereas the Druids, by constantly teaching this doctrine, procured it not only a vague and general, but a steady and prevailing faith, in all the parts where their religion prevailed.

The state of bliss into which the souls of good and brave men, were supposed by the Druids to enter immediately after their death, was called, *Flath-innis*, which signifies, *the island of the brave and virtuous*. In this island there was an eternal spring, and an immortal youth. There the sun always shed its kindest influence. Gentle breezes fanned it, and streams of ever-equal currents watered it. The trees were alive with music, and bending to the ground with flowers and fruit. The face of nature, always unruffled and serene, diffused happiness on every creature, and wore a perpetual smile of joy; whilst the inhabitants, strangers, to every thing that could give pain, enjoyed one eternal scene of calm festivity and gladness. In short, every disagreeable idea was removed from the Druidical heaven, and no property was wanting to it which could recommend a paradise. Indeed the tradition concerning the first paradise, which in the earliest stage of Druidism would be fresh and well known, might be the model on which they formed it. From the airy halls and other circumstances mentioned in the poems of Ossian, the situation of this happy place seems to have been in some calm upper region, beyond the reach of every evil which infects this lower world. This, it must be allowed,

lowed; was a far more agreeable mansion for the enjoyment of sublime felicity, than that subterraneous region in which the Greeks and Latins placed their Elysian fields.

The Druids likewise believed in a hell, or place of future torments, which was a dreary gloomy region, frozen with perpetual cold; an idea of punishment that seems very natural for a people, who live in a climate where the inconveniences of excess of cold are more strongly felt than those of heat.

It was an article in the Druidical creed, "that it was unlawful to build temples to the gods, or to worship them within walls and under roofs."\* All their places of worship therefore were in the open air, in groves planted with those trees in which they most delighted. The chief of these was the strong and spreading oak, for which they had so high an esteem, that they did not perform the least religious ceremony, without being adorned with garlands of its leaves. In this veneration for the oak the Druids were not singular. The priests of other nations, and even the Hebrew patriarchs, seem to have entertained an almost equal veneration for that tree.† These sacred groves were watered by some consecrated fountain or river, and surrounded by a ditch or mound, to prevent the intrusion of improper persons. In the centre of the grove was a circular area, inclosed with one or two rows of large stones, set perpendicular in the earth. These constituted the temple, within which the altar stood, on which the sacrifices were offered. In some of their most magnificent temples, particularly that of Stone-henge, they laid stones of prodigious weight on the tops of the standing pillars, which formed a kind of circle in the air, and added much to the grandeur of the whole. Though the sacred

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groves

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\* Tacitus. † Gen. chap. 31.



groves of the Druids have been long destroyed, yet of the temples and cromlechs,\* which were inclosed within them, there are still many vestiges remaining in the British isles, and other parts of Europe.

The religion of the Druids continued longer in Britain than in some other countries, having been revived first by the Saxons, and afterwards by the Danes. Even so late as the eleventh century, in the reign of Canute, it was found necessary to make the following law: "We strictly discharge and forbid all our subjects to worship the gods of the gentiles; that is to say, the sun, moon, fires, rivers, fountains, hills or trees, and woods of any kind."

With regard to Christianity, it is highly probable, from the concurring testimonies of several writers, and from other circumstances, that Britain was visited by the first rays of the gospel, before the end of the first century. Eusebius, bishop of Cæsarea, equally famous for his learning and integrity, who flourished in the beginning of the fourth century, and was in high favour with Constantine the Great, positively asserts, that the Christian Religion was first preached in South Britain by the apostles and their disciples; and it is reasonable to suppose, that the success of the Romans paved the way for the triumphs of the *gospel of peace*. It is certain also, that many of the soldiers and officers in the Roman armies were Christians; and as their legions were repeatedly sent over into England to extend as well as to preserve their conquests, it is more than probable, that Christianity was thus diffused among the natives.

After the suppression of the revolt under Boadicea, Britain enjoyed great tranquility for many years, under a succession of mild and good governors, and presented an inviting asylum to christians, who were cruelly persecuted in other parts, particularly at Rome.

For

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\* Stone tables, on which the Druids prepared their sacrifices.

For the greatest part of that imperial city having been reduced to ashes by a dreadful fire, the A. D. 64. infernal tyrant Nero, in order to divert the suspicion of his having been the incendiary, laid the blame of it upon the Christians, and on that false pretence, put great numbers of them to the most cruel kinds of death. " Some of them were wrapt in the skins of wild beasts, and torn in pieces by dogs ; others were crucified ; and others committed to the flames.\* From those dreadful sufferings, great multitudes of them fled into other countries ; of whom not a few took shelter in this island, as a place of the greatest safety, and thereby much increased the number of christians in Britain.

If any of the apostles visited this country, it was St. Paul, whose zeal, fortitude, and diligence, were abundant. For though Joseph of Arimathea, and St. Peter, are said to have preached the gospel, and Simon Zelotes to have suffered martyrdom here, yet the belief of these assertions rests on no better foundation than monkish legends. We have good authority to say, that in the year 182, there was a school of learning to provide the British churches with proper teachers ;† from which period it would appear, that Christianity spread its benign and salutary influences among the inhabitants, in their several districts.

### CHAP. III.

#### CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, AND LAWS OF THE ANCIENT BRITONS.

**T**HE fathers and heads of families were the first sovereigns, and the patriarchal was the most ancient form of government. The first states or civil societies,

\* Tacitus. † Archbishop Usher.

societies, therefore, were large tribes or clans, consisting of brothers, sisters, cousins, and other near relations, living in the same district, under the protection of their common parent, or of his representative, the head of the tribe or family. But this government, in its most pure and simple form, was not of long duration. For as these tribes became more numerous, they gradually approached nearer to one another. Disputes arose between them, about their limits, their properties, the honour and dignity of their chiefs, and many other things. These disputes produced wars; and each of the contending clans, in order to defend themselves and annoy their enemies, contracted alliances with one or more neighbouring clans, which were thereby, in a little time, consolidated into one large society. When Britain was invaded by the Romans, it contained many independent states, each composed of several tribes or clanships. Of this it will be sufficient to give one decisive proof. The Cantii or people of Kent, at that period, formed one of the British kingdoms; and yet Cæsar mentions no fewer than four kings in Kent at the same time, who could be no other than the chieftains or heads of so many clans or families, of which that little kingdom was composed.\*

The counties of Essex and Middlesex, and some part of Surry, were possessed by the Trinobantes, or Trinouantes. The name of this nation seems to be derived from the three following British words, *Tri*, *Now*, and *Hant*, which signify the inhabitants of the new city; for by them London was founded, the most ancient name of which was *Tri-now*, or the *New City*.  
The

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\* The British nations were thirty-eight in number, viz. the Danmonii, Durotriges, Belgæ, Bibroci Attrebatii, Ancalites, Regni, Cantii, Trinobantes, Cattivellauni, Dobuni, Iceni, Coritani, Cornavii, Silures, Demetæ, Ordovices, Cangi, Attacotti, Parisi, Brigantes, Gadeni, Selgovæ, Novantæ, Damnii, Epidii, Ceronæ, Carnonacæ, Carini, Cornavii, Mertæ, Logi, Cantæ, Caledonii, Texali, Vacomagi, Horesti, and Venicones.

The Silures or inhabitants of Wales, were unquestionably one of the bravest of the ancient British nations, and defended their country and their liberty against the Romans, with the most heroic fortitude. According to Ptolemy, who flourished about the middle of the second century, there was not so much as one town among the Caledonii, the ancient inhabitants of the Highlands, and northern parts of Scotland. This seems to be a proof, that these nations, or rather tribes, at that period, led a wandering unsettled life, strangers to agriculture, subsisting on their flocks and herds, on what they caught in hunting, or got by plunder, and on the spontaneous productions of the earth. The Texali, who were in possession of the sea-coasts, seem to have been more settled, and in a more advanced state of civilization. They had a town called *Devana*, at the mouth of the river Deva, or *Dee*, where Aberdeen now stands.

As both agriculture and commerce were in their infancy in this island, and extensive tracts of it were covered with woods and marshes, at the time of the first Roman invasion, it is highly probable that it was not very populous. If we allow twenty thousand persons of both sexes to each of the thirty-eight nations, they will make in all 760,000. Some learned authors will not admit of this number. But any computation much short of this must certainly be too low, when we consider what is said by Tacitus and Dio of the numerous armies of the Britons in those early ages.

The power of the ancient British monarchs was circumscribed within very narrow bounds. A fierce people, powerful and martial chieftains, and ministers of religion who had so much influence as the Druids, were not likely to submit to the will of a sovereign, as a supreme law. They commanded the forces of their respective states in time of war, but they could not imprison or punish any of their soldiers.

diers. This was wholly in the hands of the Druids. "None but the priests can inflict confinement, stripes, or correction of any kind; and they do this, not at the command of the general, but in obedience to their gods, who, they pretend, are peculiarly present with their armies in war."\*

The laws, as well as other branches of learning among the ancient Britons, were couched in verse. Though this may appear extraordinary to us, it was far from being peculiar to the ancient Britons. The first laws of all nations were composed in verse, and sung. We have certain proof that the first laws of Greece were a kind of songs. The laws of the ancient inhabitants of Spain were verses, which they sung. This custom was long kept up by several nations. They could easier get them by heart, and retain them in memory.

That great law, the marriage of one man and one woman, which is so clearly pointed out by nature; was fully established among our ancestors. Their kings and queens were subject to it, as well as their meanest subjects; and when they presumed to violate it, they were hated and abandoned by all the world. This appears from the story of Cartimandua, queen of the Brigantes. "Corrupted by prosperity," says Tacitus, "she abandoned herself to luxury, and despising her husband Venutius, admitted her armour-bearer Vellocatus to his place in her throne and bed. This infamous action proved her ruin; for her subjects, the Brigantes, espousing the cause of her injured husband, she was reduced to the greatest distress, and implored the protection of the Romans. These sent an army to her relief, which rescued her person, and fought several battles in her cause, but she was at last obliged to leave her kingdom in the possession of Venutius."

Murderers

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\* Tacitus.

Murderers, robbers, and thieves, were burnt to death. Those who betrayed or deserted the cause of their country were hanged on trees; and cowards, sluggards, habitual drunkards, and prostitutes were suffocated in mires and bogs.

Their flocks and herds were the most valuable possessions of almost all nations, in the most early period of their history. Several of the British nations, when they were first invaded by the Romans, had no other possessions, or means of subsistence, but their cattle. A high price, therefore was set, not only upon the life, but upon every limb of every useful animal. It was declared by a special law, that there were only three things relating either to field or domestic animals, for which no compensation should be demanded, viz. the milk of a mare, the milk of a bitch, and the milk of a cat. By the ancient laws of Wales it was forbidden, under certain penalties, to throw a stone at an ox in the plough, to tie the yoke too tight about his neck, or urge him to too great an effort in drawing.\* Very high damages were allowed to the husbandman, who was authorized to seize and retain one out of every three hogs, sheep, goats, geese, and hens, which he found among his corn.

It is probable there were no laws among the ancient Britons to prevent or punish verbal injuries, which are so sensibly felt, and so fiercely resented in modern times. Among the nations of antiquity, in general, the coarsest language was given and returned without ceremony, and was not considered as an object worthy of the attention of legislators.

By their laws of succession, a man's lands at his death did not descend to his eldest son, but were equally divided among all his sons; and when any dispute arose in the division of them, it was determined by the  
Druids.

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\* *Leges Wallicæ.*

Druids. The youngest son, it appears, was more favoured than the eldest, or any of his brothers. "When the brothers have divided their father's estate, the youngest shall have the best house, with all the office-houses, the implements of husbandry, his father's kettle, his axe for cutting wood, and his knife. These three last things, the father cannot give away by gift, nor leave by his last will to any but his youngest son; and if they are pledged, they shall be redeemed." To account for this extraordinary law is not very difficult. The elder brothers of a family were supposed to have left their father's house before his death, and to have obtained houses and necessaries of their own; but the youngest, by reason of his tender age, was considered as more helpless, and not so well provided.

With regard to the Roman government in this country, we shall only observe, that the Britons were made to *groan under a load of taxes*. The Romans imposed taxes on land, mines, houses, pillars, and several kinds of animals. Artists of all kinds paid a certain tax for the liberty of exercising their several arts. Those who administered to luxury, and made the greatest profits, paid the greatest sums; nor did the mighty monarchs of Rome disdain to claim a share in the dishonourable gains of female prostitution. The Roman emperors sometimes imposed a capitation, or poll-tax, which, with another upon the bodies of the dead before they were allowed to be buried, occasioned great discontent in Britain. The famous Boadicea, complained bitterly of these two taxes, in her harangue to the British army, before the battle with the Romans under Suetonius. "Have we not been deprived of our most valuable possessions, and do we not pay many heavy taxes for what remains? Besides all the various impositions on our lands and goods, are not our bodies taxed, and do we not pay for the very heads on our shoulders?"

ders! But why do I dwell on their impositions upon the living, when even the dead are not exempted from their exactions? Do not you all know how much we are obliged to pay for the bodies of our departed friends? Those who are subject to other nations are subject only for life, but such is the exquisite tyranny and insatiable avarice of the Romans, that they extort taxes even from the dead."

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## CHAP. IV.

### LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN AMONG THE ANCIENT BRITONS.

**T**HE philosophy of the Druids bore a much greater resemblance to that of Pythagoras, than to any system of the other sages of antiquity; the transmigration of souls being one of their doctrines. As this great philosopher travelled into many countries in pursuit of knowledge, he no doubt imparted his discourses to the Druids, and adopted some of their opinions.

Astronomy, Geography, Geometry, and Arithmetic were studied in this island, at a very early period. For though they were unacquainted with the Arabic characters of the last mentioned science, we have no reason to suppose that they were destitute of marks or characters of some other kind, which, in some measure, answered the same purposes, both in making and recording their calculations. The letters of the Greek alphabet were probably used for both these purposes. This seems to be plainly intimated by Cæsar in the following expression concerning the Druids of Gaul: "In almost all their public transactions, and private accounts or computations, they make use of the Greek letters."

Monuments still remaining sufficiently evince, that  
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the ancient Britons could apply the *science of mechanics*, so as to produce very astonishing effects. As these monuments appear to have been designed for religious purposes, we may be certain that they were erected under the direction of the Druids. How many obelisks, or pillars, are still to be seen on the tops of mountains, in Britain and its isles? We can hardly suppose that it was possible to cut these prodigious masses of stone (some of them above 40 tons in weight) without wedges, or to raise them out of the quarries without levers. But it certainly required still greater knowledge of the mechanical powers, and of the methods of applying them, to transport those huge stones from the quarry to their places of destination.

The famous *Julius Agricola*, who was advanced to the government of Britain, in the year of Christ 78, was the first of the Roman governors of this island, who gave any considerable attention to the concerns of learning. This illustrious person being not only one of the greatest generals, but also one of the best and most learned men of the age in which he lived, took great pains to reconcile the provincial Britons to the Roman government, by introducing amongst them the Roman arts and sciences. With this view he persuaded the noble youth of Britain to learn the Latin language, and to apply to the study of the Roman eloquence. These persuasions were successful, because they were seasonable; and the British youth being deprived of their former instructors, by the destruction and expulsion of the Druids (which happened about this time) willingly put themselves under those teachers who were provided for them by the Romans.

Though the names of some learned men, who flourished in Gaul in the third, fourth, and fifth centuries, are still preserved, it must be confessed that we know very little of the literati of Britain in those times.

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This is chiefly owing to the dreadful havoc which made, first by the Scots and Picts, and afterwards by the Saxons, of the monuments of Roman arts and learning in this island.

*Sylvius Bonus* was a learned Briton, who flourished in the fourth century, and was contemporary with the poet Ausonius, whose indignation he incurred by criticising his works. Ausonius wrote no fewer than six epigrams against Sylvius, in which he reproached him chiefly on account of his country; for the sting of all these epigrams is this, "If Sylvius be good, he is not a Briton, or if he be a Briton, he is not good; for a Briton cannot be a good man."

*St. Ninian*, who was one of the chief instruments of propagating the christian religion in the northern parts of this island, among the Scots and Picts, was a Briton of noble birth and excellent genius. After he had received as good an education as his own country could afford, he travelled for his further improvement, and spent several years at Rome, which was then the chief seat of learning, as well as of empire. From thence he returned into Britain, and spent his life in preaching the gospel in the most uncultivated parts of it, with equal zeal and success.

*St. Patrick*, the famous apostle of the Irish, was also a Briton of a good family and ingenious disposition. Having received the first part of his education at home, he travelled into Gaul, and studied a considerable time under the celebrated St. Germanus, bishop of Arles. From thence he went to Rome, where, by the depth of his learning and the sanctity of his manners, he gained the esteem and friendship of Cælestine, bishop of that city, who advised him to employ his great talents in attempting to civilize the people of Ireland, and to instruct them in the knowledge of the christian religion. He was not unacquainted with that country, having been taken in his youth by pirates, and carried into

into Ireland, where he spent some years. Having there beheld with compassion, the general ignorance of that people, he cheerfully undertook the arduous task of their instruction and conversion. In this work he employed the remaining years of his life, when his pious and learned labours were crowned with the most astonishing success.

The famous heretic *Pelagius*, whose real name is believed to have been Morgan, was born in that part of Britain, which is now called North Wales, on the 13th of November, 354, the same day with his great antagonist, St. Augustin.

Even the most northern parts of this island produced some men of learning, in this period. *Celestius*, the disciple and friend of Pelagius, was a Scotchman, who made a prodigious noise in the world by his writings, about the beginning of the fifth century. He defended and propagated the peculiar opinions of his master Pelagius, with so much learning, zeal, and success, that those who embraced these opinions were frequently called Celestians. The orthodox fathers of those days gave him many bad names in their writings. St Jerom, whose commentaries on the Ephesians he had presumed to criticise, calls him, "an ignorant, stupid fool, having his belly swelled and distended with Scotch pottage; a great, corpulent, barking dog, who was fitter to kick with his heels, than to bite with his teeth; a Cerberus, who with his master Pluto,\* deserved to be knocked on the head, that they might be put to eternal silence." Such were the flowers of rhetoric, which these good fathers employed against the enemies of the orthodox faith.

CHAP.

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\* Pelagius.

## CHAP. V.

OF THE ARTS IN GREAT BRITAIN, BEFORE THE  
ARRIVAL OF THE SAXONS.

**T**HE first arts were those of hunting, pasturage, and agriculture. As soon as the Romans had obtained a firm establishment in Britain, agriculture began to be very much improved and extended. This was an art in which that renowned people greatly delighted, and which they encouraged in all the provinces of their empire. "When the Romans," says Cato, "designed to bestow the highest praise on a good man, they used to say, he understands agriculture well, and is an excellent husbandman; for this was esteemed the greatest and most honourable character." As soon, therefore, as the Romans had subdued any of the British states, they endeavoured by various means, to bring their new subjects to cultivate their lands, in order to render their conquest more valuable.

As in those early times, they had no better food than the spontaneous productions of the earth, or the animals which they took in hunting, so they had no better lodgings than thickets, dens, and caves. Their winter habitations and places of retreat in time of war, being dug deep in the ground and covered with earth, were rendered secure and warm by art. Some of these subterraneous houses are still remaining in Cornwall; and in the western isles of Scotland. The summer habitations of the most ancient Britons were very slight, and consisted only of a few stakes driven into the ground, interwoven with wattles, and covered with the boughs of trees. They next proceeded to form the walls of large beams of wood; which was the mode of building in Britain, when it was first invaded by the Romans. These wooden houses were  
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not square, but circular, with high tapering roofs, at the top of which was an aperture for the admission of light and emission of smoke. The foundations of some of the most magnificent of those circular houses, were of stone, of which there are some vestiges still remaining in Anglesey and other places. It was in imitation of these wooden houses, that the most ancient stone edifices were built circular, and had a large aperture at the top. The palaces of the British princes were built of the same materials, and on the same plan, with the houses of their subjects, and different from them only in solidity and magnitude.

“What the Britons call a town,” says Strabo, “is a tract of woody country, surrounded by a mound and ditch, for the security of themselves and cattle against the incursions of their enemies.” The forests of the Britons were their cities. For when they had inclosed a very large circuit with felled trees, they built within it houses for themselves, and hovels for their cattle. These buildings were very slight, and not designed for long duration.

But as soon as the Romans begun to form settlements and plant colonies in this island, a sudden and surprising change ensued in the state of architecture. The first Roman colony was planted at Camalodunum, A. D. 50. and when it was destroyed by the Britons in their great revolt under Boadicea, only eleven years after, it appears to have been a large and well-built town, adorned with statues, temples, theatres, and other public edifices. But London affords a still more striking example of the rapid progress of the Roman architecture in this island. There was either no town in that place, or at most, only a British town or *inclosed forest*, at the time of the first Roman invasion. But it had not been in the possession of the Romans many years, before it became a rich, populous and beautiful city.

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As the art of war is as necessary, so it has every where been as ancient as any of the other arts. All the young men among the ancient Britons, as well as other Celtic nations, were trained to the use of arms from their early youth, continued in the exercise of them to their old age, and were always ready to appear when they were called by their leaders into actual service. Their very diversions and amusements were of a martial and manly cast, and contributed greatly to increase their agility, strength, and courage ; a circumstance which is, perhaps, too much neglected in the military discipline of modern times.

Mankind have naturally a taste for imitation, and from this taste some of their most innocent pleasures are derived. Of this kind are the two imitative arts of *sculpture* and *painting*. The idea of forming images of men and other animals of clay and wax, and other soft substances, which are easily moulded into any form, is so natural and obvious, that the practice of it has been very ancient and universal. When the Britons had arrived at some dexterity at working in wood, they began to adorn these works with various figures ; particularly their war chariots, which were curiously carved, and on which they lavished all their art.

After the authority of the Druids was destroyed, and that of the Romans established, statues were introduced into the temples, as well as into public and private houses. At their departure, however, they carried off some of the most admired pieces of sculpture ; and great numbers of them, together with the edifices which they adorned, were destroyed by the Scots and Picts in their incursions, and by the Saxons in their long wars. The few pieces which have escaped all these accidents and the injuries of time, and are now preserved with care in the repositories of the curious, are chiefly figures cut on altars, and particular

lar stones, in Basso Relievo.\* Some of these are in a fine and delicate taste.

*Painting* is another of the pleasing and imitative arts, which represents visible objects on smooth surfaces, by lines and colours. Some rude beginnings of this art have been discovered among the most savage nations; and the first essays of it were certainly very ancient in this island. Cæsar, Pliny, and Herodian, frequently mention their practice of body-painting. "All the Britons stain themselves with woad, which makes their skins of a blue colour. They draw upon their naked bodies the figures of animals of all kinds, which they esteem so great an ornament, that they wear no clothes, that these figures may be exposed to view." We learn from other authors, that this body-painting was a distinct trade or profession in those times; and that these artists began their work, by making the intended figures upon the skin with the punctures of sharp needles, that it might the better imbibe and retain the colouring. This is said to have been a very painful operation. When these figures were made on the body in childhood, as they commonly were, they grew and enlarged with it, and continued upon it through life. Persons of inferior rank had but few of these figures, of a small size, and coarse workmanship, painted on their bodies; but those of better families had them in greater numbers, of larger dimensions, and more elegantly executed, according to their different degrees of nobility. "The name of the Picts," says Isidorus, "corresponds very well with the appearance of their bodies. For they squeeze the juice of certain herbs into figures made on their bodies with the points of needles, and so carry the badges of their nobility on their spotted skins." As both sexes painted, we have reason to suppose that the British ladies would not be sparing of

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\* Horsley's *Britannia Romana*.

of these fine figures on their bodies, which were at once esteemed so honourable and ornamental.

There is not any one circumstance in the history of the ancient Britons, more surprising than that of their early and admirable taste for *Poetry*. At a time when they were almost naked, and without tolerable lodgings; when they chiefly depended on what they caught in hunting for their subsistence, they composed the most sublime and beautiful poems, of various kinds, on many different subjects. The ardour of their devout affections, their enthusiasm for warlike exploits, and their admiration of the beauties of the fair sex, no doubt, inspired the first poets; and, as they knew nothing of writing, men of genius soon perceived that their compositions could not be circulated among their contemporaries, nor transmitted to posterity, if they did not clothe them in melodious numbers, and adorn them with the charms of poetry.

Our ancestors, and all the Celtic nations, composed hymns in honour of their gods, which they sung at their sacrifices and other religious solemnities.

As war was the great business and chief delight of the ancient British princes, so it was one of the most frequent subjects of the songs of their poets. For it was their opinion that martial songs enlivened war, supported the yielding fight, and inflamed the courage of the combatants: "Son of the chief of generous steeds: Strong arm in every perilous toil: Cut down the foe: Be thine arm like thunder: Thine eyes like fire: Thy heart of solid steel: Whirl round thy sword as a meteor of night, and lift thy shield like the flame of death."\* Sometimes, indeed, when the bards did not approve of a war, they sung such mild pacific strains, as calmed the rage of two hostile armies ready to engage, and brought about a peace. "When two  
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\* Ossian.



armies have been standing in order of battle," says Diodorus Siculus, "with swords drawn and lances extended, on the point of engaging in a most furious conflict, these poets have stepped in between them, and by their sweet persuasive songs, have calmed their fury like that of wild beasts." Thus, even among these fierce barbarians, rage gave way to wisdom, and Mars yielded to the Muses.

Next to the martial feats of heroes, the charms of the fair, and the cares and joys of virtuous love, were the most frequent and delightful subjects of the songs of the ancient British bards. Their descriptions of female beauty are always short and delicate; expressive of the modesty and innocence of the minds of the ladies, as well as of the charms of their persons. "Half hid in her shady grove, Roscrana raised the song. Her white hand rose on the harp. I beheld her blue rolling eyes. She was like a spirit of heaven half-folded in the skirts of a cloud. She rose bright amidst my troubled soul. She came with bending eye, amidst the wandering of her heavenly looks.\*

The ancient inhabitants of Britain, as well as of many other countries, had at least as great a taste and fondness for music as they had for poetry. Music is natural to mankind, who have been accustomed to singing in all ages, and in all countries. Vocal music, perhaps in imitation of the feathered songsters of the woods and groves, was here, and every where, more ancient than instrumental. In the first stages of society, the two sister arts of poetry and music seem to have been always united; every poet was a musician, and sung his own verses to the sound of some musical instrument. This was one of those circumstances, which rendered the music of the ancients so affecting, and enabled it to produce such strong emotions of rage, love, joy,

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\* Ossian.

joy, grief, and other passions in the hearers, by conveying the pathetic strains of poetry to their hearts, in the most rousing, softening, joyous, or plaintive sounds.\*

Though the ancient Britons were not altogether unacquainted with wind instruments of music, yet they seem to have delighted chiefly in the lyre or harp. This instrument is said to have been invented by the Scythians, and was much used by all the Celtic nations. They sung and played by the ear, and their tunes, as well as their poems, were handed down from one age to another.

## CHAP. VI.

### COMMERCE, COIN, AND SHIPPING OF BRITAIN IN THE EARLY AGES.

THE Phœnicians are generally believed to have been the inventors of navigation and foreign trade, and the instructors of other nations in their most useful arts. They were the boldest and most expert mariners, the greatest and most successful merchants of antiquity. Some writers are of opinion, that this island was discovered by that adventurous people before the Trojan war, and not long after it was first inhabited by colonies from the continent of Gaul. If we could be certain that the tin, in which the Tyrians or Phœnicians traded in the days of the prophet Ezekiel, was brought from Britain, we should be obliged to embrace this opinion.† But as we know that they found great quantities of tin, as well as of more precious metals in Spain, we cannot fix the æra of their arrival in Britain from this circumstance.

It is not probable that the Phœnicians planted any colonies, or built any cities in Britain and the adjacent islands,

\* Rollin. † Ezekiel, chap. 26, ver. 12.

islands, but contented themselves with making occasional voyages into these parts of the world, for the sake of trade; and this is the reason that so few vestiges of them are to be found, even in those parts of this island which they most frequented. The commodities exported by them, from this country, were tin, lead, and the skins both of wild and tame animals. Under this last article was comprehended the wool of the British sheep, which hath been so excellent in all ages, and would be of great use to the Phœnicians in their woollen manufactures.

Though the Phœnicians were immensely rich in gold and silver, yet they made no use of coin in their commerce with the people of Britain. That people had, in those times, no idea of the nature or use of money; and the Phœnicians profited too much by their ignorance, to take any pains to instruct them in these particulars. They acted in the same manner towards the ancient Britons, as the Europeans acted towards the people of America, on their first discovery of that country. They gave them things of small price, in exchange for their most valuable commodities. Their imports consisted of the three articles of salt, earthenware, and trinkets made of brass. The first and second of these articles were indeed useful, but of easy purchase, and were probably sold at an exorbitant rate to the unskilful Britons. The things made of brass, were chiefly of the ornamental kind, as bracelets for their arms, chains for their necks, rings, and the like, of which the Britons were remarkably fond.

About 300 years before the birth of Christ, the Greeks began to trade into Britain, and chiefly exported tin, which yielded very great profits. For this metal was long held in high estimation in all parts of the world, on account of the facility with which it was manufactured, and the various uses to which it was applied. It was even sent into India, where none of it was to be found,

found, and where they purchased it with their most precious diamonds.

Though the Britons had some iron when they were first invaded by the Romans, yet, as Cæsar observes, they had it only in small quantities, hardly sufficient for their home consumption, and none to spare for exportation. But after the Romans had been some time settled in this island, this most useful metal became very plentiful, and made a part of the British exports.

Gems, and particularly pearls, which were esteemed by the Romans the most precious and excellent of all things, were exported from Britain at this period. Julius Cæsar was so great an admirer of the British pearls, which he had seen in Gaul, that the hope of obtaining a quantity of them, as I have already observed, was his chief inducement to the invasion of Britain. This much is certain, that after his return from this island, he consecrated a breast-plate, of great value and beauty, to Venus, in her temple at Rome, which he signified by an inscription, to be composed of British pearls. It seems probable that the pearls of Britain were inferior to those of India and Arabia in general, though some of them might be remarkable for their size and beauty.

“The fairest pearls grow on British coasts.”\*

As Britain very much abounded in cattle of all kinds, we may be certain that they furnished the merchants of those times with several articles for exportation. The British horses were so beautiful, and so admirably trained, that they were much admired by the Romans, and exported for the saddles of their great men, and for mounting their cavalry. After the Romans had instructed the Britons in the art of making cheese, great quantities of it are said to have been exported for the use of the Roman armies.

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\* Gignit et insignes antiqua Britannia baccas.

It will perhaps appear ridiculous to many readers, to be told, that the British dogs constituted no inconsiderable article in the exports of this period. But in the hunting and pastoral stages of society, these faithful animals are the favorite companions and most useful possessions of men; and even in a more advanced period of civilization, they contribute not a little to their amusement. Those dogs were of different kinds. But the greatest numbers, and those which bore the highest price, were designed for hunting, and excelled all others, both in their swiftness and exquisite scent. They are thus described in a passage of Oppian.

"There is a kind of dogs of mighty fame

"For hunting, worthy of a fairer frame:

"By painted Britons brave in war they're bred,

"Are beagles call'd, and to the chase are led:

"Their bodies small, and of so mean a shape,

"You'd think them curs, that under tables gape."

The goods imported into Britain, according to Strabo, were ivory bridles, gold chains, cups of amber, and drinking-glasses. But after the Roman conquest, the imports unavoidably became much more various and valuable. Besides wine, spices, and many other articles for their tables, they were under a necessity of importing the greatest number of their tools, arms, furniture, clothing, and many other things.

Thus all the trade of great Britain was carried on, for some ages, in the way of barter, and exchange of one commodity for another. When metals were first used as money, and made the common prices of all commodities, their value was determined only by their weight. The seller having agreed to accept of a certain quantity of gold, silver, or brass for his goods, the buyer cut off that quantity from the plate or ingot of that metal in his possession; and having weighed it, delivered it to the seller, and received the goods. But this method of transacting business was attended with  
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much trouble, and liable to various frauds, both in the weight and fineness of the metals used in commerce. It was, therefore, ordained by the laws of several ancient nations, that all the metals used as money, should be divided into small pieces, and stamped with certain marks.

As a considerable number of gold coins were found in 1749, on the top of Karn-bre hill, in Cornwall, which are clearly proved to have belonged to the ancient Britons, it must certainly have been discovered that this island produced gold and silver not long after the first invasion of the Romans. The figures that were first stamped on the coins of all nations, (especially of those nations, whose chief riches consisted in their flocks and herds,) were those of oxen, horses, hogs, and sheep. From hence we may conclude, that those coins of any country, which have only the figures of *cattle* stamped upon them, and perhaps of *trees*, representing the woods in which their cattle pastured, were the most ancient coins of that country. Some of the gold coins found at Karn-bre, in Cornwall, and described by Dr. Borlase, are of this kind, and may therefore be justly esteemed the *most ancient* of our British coins.

When sovereigns became sensible of the great importance of money, and took the fabrication of it under their own direction, they ordered their own heads to be stamped on one side of their coins, while the figures of some animals still continued to be impressed on the other side. Of this kind are some of the Karn-bre coins, with a royal head on one side, and a horse on the other, which we may suppose to have been struck in a more advanced state of the British coinage.

When the knowledge and use of letters were once introduced into any country where money was coined, it would not be long before they appeared on its coins, expressing the names of the princes whose heads were

were impressed upon them, and of the places where they were coined, and other circumstances. This was a very great improvement in the art of coining, and gave an additional value to the money, by making it preserve the memories of princes, and afford light to history. Nor were our British ancestors unacquainted with this great improvement, before they were subdued by the Romans. For several of our ancient British coins, which are preserved in the cabinets of the curious, have very plain and perfect inscriptions, and on that account merit particular attention,

*Floats or rafts* are believed, by most authors, to have been the first kind of water-carriage. To these succeeded *canoes*, made of one very large tree *excavated*, to secure its freight from being wetted or washed away :

*"Tunc alnos primum fluvii sensere cavatas."*

"Then first on seas the hollow alder swam."

As they wanted proper tools for sawing large trees into planks, the most ancient vessels or boats, in several countries, were made of ozers, and the flexible branches of trees interwoven as close as possible, and covered with skins.\* "The sea which flows between Britain and Ireland is so unquiet and stormy, that it is only navigable in summer; when the people of these countries, pass and repass it in small boats made of wattles, and covered carefully with the hides of oxen."†

The singular form of these boats is, perhaps, the reason that they are so much taken notice of by ancient writers; while those of a better form, and more like the ships of other countries, are seldom mentioned. It is however very probable, that they were not altogether destitute of such ships, even before they were invaded by the Romans. For we are told by Cæsar, "that the sea-coasts of Britain were possessed by colonies

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\* Cæsar. † Solinus.

nies which had lately come from Gaul, and still retained the names of the several states from whence they came." Now as these colonies came with a design to make war, in order to force a settlement, they must have brought with them great numbers of armed men, together with their wives and children, and perhaps their most valuable effects. This could not be done without fleets of ships of greater capacity and strength than the wicker-boats above described.

After the Roman conquest, when London, in the A. D. 61. reign of Nero, was become a great city, abounding in merchants and merchandize, it certainly abounded also in shipping. And when, in the year 359, no fewer than eight hundred ships were employed in the exportation of corn, the whole number employed in the British trade must have been very great.

Towards the end of the third century, when the Frank and Saxon pirates began to infest the seas, we may form some idea of the greatness of the British fleet, by observing the vast preparations that were made against them for several years. The emperor Constantius did not think it safe to put to sea, nor to attempt the recovery of Britain, till he had collected a fleet of a thousand sail; and after all, his success in that enterprise is ascribed more to his good fortune in passing the British fleet in a thick fog, than to his superior force.\* The high encomiums bestowed on Constantius, for this exploit of recovering Britain, afford another proof of its great importance, on account of its naval force. "O happy victory! (exclaims his panegyrist) comprehending many victories and innumerable triumphs. By it Britain is restored, the Franks exterminated, and many nations which had conspired together, are constrained to make submission. Rejoice,

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O invincible

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\* Campbell's Lives of the Admirals.



O invincible Cæsar! for thou hast conquered another world, and by restoring the glory of the naval power of Rome, hast added to her empire a greater element than the whole earth."

By the departure of the Romans, the Britons suffered as much in their maritime affairs, as in any respect whatever. The Roman fleets and garrisons being withdrawn, the British ships became an easy prey to the Frank and Saxon pirates at sea, and were not secure even in their harbours. This obliged all the most wealthy merchants to retire, with their ships and effects into the interior provinces of the empire.

## CHAP. VII.

### MANNERS AND CUSTOMS OF THE ANCIENT BRITONS.

THE history of manners is, perhaps, the most agreeable and entertaining part of history. They who delight in observing the various passions, foibles, and humours of mankind in real life, will peruse with pleasure a delineation of the manners, customs, and characters of nations, during their several periods.

The ancient Britons were remarkable for the size and stature of their bodies, and for their fair complexions. The women, in particular, excelled in the fairness and softness of their persons. One of these British beauties is compared, by the poet, "to the down of the Swan, when slow she sails the lake, and sidelong winds are blowing."\* The hair of the Caledonians, or North Britons, is said to have been of a reddish cast; and that of the Silures, or people of South Wales, most commonly curled.† All the Celtic nations had blue eyes,

\* Poems of Ossian. † Tacitus.

eyes, which were esteemed very beautiful by the ancient Britons of both sexes. Their voices, when they exerted them with a design to excite terror, were exceedingly loud, horrid, and frightful. "Now Fingal arose in his might, and thrice he reared his voice. Cromla answered around, and the sons of the desert stood still."\*

The Britons and other Celtic nations were no less remarkable for the strength, than for the bulk of their bodies. The following description of Fingal and Swaran wrestling, must give us a high idea of the prodigious strength of these two chieftains. "Their sinewy arms bend round each other; they turn from side to side, and strain and stretch their large spreading limbs below: But when the pride of their strength arose, they shook the hill with their heels; rocks tumble from their places on high; the green headed bushes are overturned." They excelled in running, swimming, wrestling, climbing, and all kinds of bodily exercises. They could patiently endure the greatest difficulties. "The Caledonians", says an accurate writer, "are accustomed to fatigues, to bear hunger, cold, and all manner of hardships. They run into the morasses up to the neck, and live there several days without eating."† But what many of the Roman historians have observed concerning the Gauls and Germans, was probably true likewise of the Britons; that they were not capable of bearing much heat or thirst; and that they exerted their strength with so much violence on their first assault upon an enemy, that it was soon exhausted.

The following poetical picture of an ancient Briton, in the prime of his strength and beauty, was drawn from the life by the hand of a master. "Was he white as the snow of Ardven? Blooming as the bow of

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\* Ossian. † Strabo.

of the shower? Was his hair like the mist of the hill, soft and curling in the day of the sun? Was he like the thunder of heaven in battle? Fleet as the roe of the desert?"\* •

Nature was no less liberal to the Britons in the faculties of their minds, than in the formation of their bodies. They were acute and ingenious, and very capable of acquiring any art or science to which they applied. Julius Agricola loaded with praises, the young men of Britain, who studied the Roman language and learning, and declared that they excelled the youths of Gaul in genius.

Valour in war was the most admired and popular virtue of the ancient Britons. They were accustomed, almost from their infancy, to handle arms, and to sing the glorious actions of their ancestors. This inspired their young hearts with impatient desires to engage the enemy. As they advanced in years, they were made fully sensible, that every thing in life depended on their courage. The smiles of the fair, the favour of the great, the praises of the bards, the applauses of the people, and even happiness after death, were only to be obtained by brave and daring exploits in war. " Mine arm rescued the feeble, the haughty found my rage was fire. For this my fathers shall meet me at the gates of their airy halls, tall, with robes of light, with mildly-kindled eyes.†"

They were no less remarkable than the other Celtic nations, for their love of liberty. To this powerful passion their leaders constantly addressed themselves, in all their harangues; and by this were they animated to make so long and obstinate a resistance to their invading foes. The character which a celebrated historian gives of them, even after they had submitted to the Roman government, before they were enervated by Roman luxury, is probably

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\* Ossian. † Ossian.

probably very just, and is certainly very honourable. "The Britons are a people who pay their taxes, and obey the laws with pleasure, *provided no arbitrary and illegal demands are made upon them*; but these they cannot bear without the greatest impatience: for they are only reduced to the state of subjects, not of slaves.\*

Hospitality was one of the most shining virtues of the ancient Britons. As soon as they beheld the face of a stranger, they felt the sincerest joy at his arrival, accosted him in the most friendly manner, and gave him the warmest invitations to enter their doors, which they opened for his reception. It was even long esteemed infamous for a chieftain to shut the door of his house at all; lest, as the bards expressed it, *the strangers should come and behold his contracted soul*. As soon as a stranger accepted the friendly invitation, and entered the hospitable door, water was presented to him to wash his feet; and if he received and used it, and at the same time delivered his arms to the master of the house, it was understood as an intimation that he designed to favour him with his company for some time, at least for one night. This diffused joy over the whole mansion. The music of the harp began, and an entertainment was immediately prepared and served up, as sumptuous and plentiful as the entertainer could afford. As long as the stranger staid, his person was esteemed sacred and inviolable, the season was devoted to festivity, and every amusement in the power of his host was prepared for him, to make him pass his time agreeably, and prolong his stay. Hospitality of a similar kind continued to be practised long after this period, by the genuine posterity of the ancient Britons in Wales and the Highlands of Scotland; nor is it quite banished from some of the most unfrequented parts of these countries, even to this day.

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\* Tacitus.

Our British ancestors were famous for the warmth of their natural affections, their duty to their parents and superiors, and their inviolable attachment to their friends and family. All the young men of a clan, or family, treated the old men with the respect due to parents; and those of the same age behaved towards one another as brothers. Nothing could equal the respect, affection, and firm attachment, which every family bore to its head or chieftain. For his safety and honour, every one of his friends and followers was ready to expose his own life to the most imminent danger. In a word, all the members of a clan or family were animated with one spirit; and whoever did an injury or offered an affront to one of them, drew upon himself the resentment of the whole. This family affection, or clanship, is hardly yet extinguished in some parts of this island.\*

Their new-born infants were plunged into some lake or river, even in the winter season, with a view to try the strength of their constitutions, and to harden their bodies. The Britons might therefore, on this account, have adopted the boastful speech of Numanus, the Rutilian, who was of the Celtic race:

“ Strong from the cradle, of a sturdy brood,

“ We bear our new-born infants to the flood;

“ There bath’d amid the stream our boys we hold,

“ With winter harden’d, and inur’d to cold.†

Every woman nursed all her own children, without having the least idea that it was possible for any other woman to perform that parental office. The sons of all ranks of men were allowed to run, wrestle, jump, swim, climb, and, in a word, to do what they pleased, without almost any restraint, till they began to advance towards manhood. To this continual exercise and perfect liberty, together with the simplicity of their diet,

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\* Macpherson, † Dryden's *Virgil*.

diet, Cæsar ascribes the great strength of body, and boldness of spirit, to which the youth of these nations attained.

As war was the favourite profession of the ancient Britons, they had many remarkable customs in the prosecution of it. When an unfortunate chieftain implored the protection and assistance of another, he approached the place of his residence with a bloody shield in one hand, to intimate the death of his friends, and a broken spear in the other, to represent his own incapacity to revenge it. When one chieftain entered the territories of another on a friendly visit, he and his followers carried their spears inverted, with their points behind them; but when they came with an hostile intention, they carried them with the points before. An invading army never neglected to draw blood from the first animal they met on the enemy's ground, and to sprinkle it upon their colours.\* When two hostile armies lay near to each other, it was the constant custom of the commanders of both, to retire from their troops, and spend the night before a battle in meditating on the dispositions they intended to make during the approaching action. When two British kings or chiefs made peace after a war, or entered into an alliance, they generally confirmed the agreement by feasting together, by exchanging arms, and sometimes by drinking a few drops of each other's blood; which was esteemed a most sacred and inviolable bond of friendship.

The tender affection which subsists among near relations and dear friends, has, in all ages and countries, disposed the survivors to pay certain honours to their deceased friends, and to commit their remains to the earth with some peculiar rites and ceremonies. It was the custom of the British nations in the South, and of the Gauls, to throw into the funeral pile on which the  
body

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\* Martin's Western Islands.

body was burnt, those things, and even those animals in which the deceased had most delighted ; nay, they sometimes threw into the flaming pile such of his servants and friends as had been his greatest favourites, and all were reduced to ashes together in the same fire. When they buried their ashes, they buried likewise with them, their books of accounts, and the notes of hand for the sums of money, which they had lent whilst alive, that they might exact the payment of them in the other world. The sepulchral urns were, for the most part, deposited under barrows, or large circular heaps of earth and stones. But as the bones of men lying at full length, and without any marks of burning, have been found in some barrows, it appears, that on some occasions the South-Britons buried their dead without burning.\* This was the constant practice of the Caledonians, or Britons of the north, whose manner of burying their dead is thus described by one who had the best opportunities of being acquainted with their customs : “ They opened a grave six or eight feet deep ; the bottom was lined with fine clay, and on this they laid the body of the deceased ; and, if a warrior, his sword and the heads of twelve arrows by his side. Above they laid another stratum of clay, in which they placed the horn of a deer, the symbol of hunting. The whole was covered with a fine mould, and four stones placed on end, to mark the extent of the grave. The bows of warriors, as well as their swords and arrows, were deposited in their graves. These graves were marked sometimes only with one, and sometimes with two stones ; and sometimes a cairn or barrow was raised over them. The favourite dogs of the deceased were often buried near them.† But the most important and essential rite of sepulture among the ancient Britons, was the funeral song, containing the praises of

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\* Borlase's Antiquities. † Macpherson.

of the deceased, sung by a number of bards, to the music of their harps, when the body was deposited in the grave. To want a funeral song was esteemed the greatest misfortune and disgrace; as they believed that without it, their spirits could enjoy no rest or happiness in a future state.

The language of the ancient Britons, when they were first invaded by the Romans, was a dialect of the Celtic, which had been the language of all the nations of Europe descended from Gomer, and still continued to be spoken by the people of Gaul, and several other countries. A convincing proof of this is, that the names of most rivers, brooks, hills, mountains, towns, and cities, in all parts of this island, are significant in that language, and descriptive of their situations, properties and appearances. For the *first inhabitants* of every country are under a necessity of giving names immediately to those objects about which they have daily occasion to converse; and these primitive names are naturally no other than brief descriptions of the most striking appearances and obvious properties of these objects in their native tongue. Dialects of the Celtic, once the universal language of Britain, still continue to be spoken in Wales, in the Highlands and western islands of Scotland, and in Ireland, as well as in some places on the continent. For though the Romans endeavoured to introduce not only their laws and government, but also their language, into all the countries which they conquered, they failed in this last attempt in several provinces of their empire, and particularly in Britain. Some of the noble youth of the provincial Britons were, indeed, prevailed upon to learn the Latin tongue, and to study the Roman eloquence. But even these did not discontinue the use of their native language, and the body of the people neither understood nor spoke any other. As the Romans never conquered the Caledonians, or northern Britons, they



great herds of cattle and flocks of sheep, whose flesh and milk yielded them a variety of substantial dishes. " They used little bread at their entertainments, but a great deal of flesh, which they either boiled in water, broiled on the coals, or roasted on spits."\* They had also venison, game, and poultry of all kinds, though they were restrained by some superstitious fancy, from using as food, either hares, hens, or geese.† They were not ignorant of the art of salting flesh ; but their salt had a very different appearance from ours, and was made by the following process. They raised a pile of trees, chiefly oaks and hazels, set it on fire, and reduced it to charcoal ; upon which, while it was still red-hot, they poured a certain quantity of salt water, which converted the whole mass into a kind of salt of a black colour.‡

The Caledonians had the art of roasting their acorns and other wild fruits, grinding them into meal, and making them into a kind of bread. The following account of their manner of dressing venison, for a feast, may serve as a sufficient specimen of their cookery. A pit, lined with smooth stones, was made, and near it stood a heap of flint stones. The stones, as well as the pit, were properly heated with heath. Then they laid some venison in the bottom, and a stratum of stones above it, and thus they did alternately, till the pit was full. The whole was covered over with heath, to confine the steam. This was evidently a very laborious process, and required the assistance of many hands. Accordingly, the greatest heroes did not disdain to assist in preparing the feast of which they were to partake. " It was on Cromla's shaggy side, that Douglas placed the deer ; the early fortune of the chase, before the heroes left the hill. An hundred youths collect the heath ; ten heroes blow the fire ;  
three

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\* Diodorus Siculus. † Cæsar. ‡ Pliny.

three hundred chuse the polished stones. The feast is smoking wide."\*

Water was the only drink of the most ancient inhabitants of this island; but it was not long before they began to use the milk of animals, as being more warm, pleasant, and nourishing. Previous to the introduction of agriculture, mead, or honey diluted with water, and fermented, was the only strong liquor known to the Britons. This continued to be a favourite beverage among them, long after they had become acquainted with other liquors. The *mead-maker* was the eleventh person in dignity in the courts of the ancient princes of Wales, and took place of the *physician*. The following ancient law of the principality shews how much this liquor was esteemed by the British princes: "There are three things in the court which must be communicated to the king before they are made known to any other person, namely, *every sentence of the judge, every new song, and every cask of mead*". This was perhaps the liquor, which is called, by Ossian, the joy and strength of the shells, with which his heroes were so much delighted.

After the introduction of agriculture, ale or beer became the most general drink of all the British nations, who practised that art, as it had been of all the Celtic people on the continent. "All the nations," says Pliny, "who inhabit the west of Europe, have a liquor with which they intoxicate themselves, made of corn and water. So exquisite is the cunning of mankind, in gratifying their various appetites, that they have thus invented a method to make water itself intoxicate."

If the Phœnicians or Greeks imported any wine into Britain, it was only in very small quantities. That most generous liquor was very little known in  
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in this island, before it was conquered by the Romans. After that period, wine was not only imported from the continent in considerable quantities, but some attempts were made to cultivate vines, and to make wine in Britain.

Breakfast and supper were the only meals of the ancient Britons, at the latter of which they ate and drank with great freedom, and often to excess. The guests sat in a circle upon the ground, with a little hay, grass, or the skin of some animal under them. Every guest took the meat set before him in his hands, and tearing it with his teeth, fed upon it in the best manner he could. If any part of the meat could not be easily separated, a large knife lay in a particular place for the benefit of the whole company. The dishes in which the meat was served up, were either of wood, or earthen-ware, or baskets made of osiers. These last were most used by the Britons, as they very much excelled in the art of making them, both for their own use and for exportation. Their drinking vessels were made of the horns of oxen and other animals; but those of the Caledonians consisted of large shells, which are still used by some of their posterity in the Highlands of Scotland.

They indulged themselves in feasting as often as they had an opportunity. No public assembly was held, either for civil or religious purposes, no birthday, marriage, or funeral could be celebrated, no treaty of peace or alliance could be properly cemented, without a *great feast*. It was by frequent entertainments of this kind that the great men, or chieftains, gained the affections and rewarded the services of their followers; and those who made the greatest feasts were sure to be most popular. These feasts generally lasted several days, and the guests seldom retired till they had consumed all the provisions, and exhausted all the liquors. Athenæus describes an entertainment given by

by a very wealthy prince, which continued a whole year without interruption, and at which all who had an inclination to come, were made welcome. These convivial meetings were accompanied with music and dancing. When the feast of shells was prepared, the songs of bards arose. The voice of sprightly mirth was heard. The trembling harps of joy were strung, and the youth of both sexes danced for the entertainment of the company.

As hunting was a kind of apprenticeship to war, it was a favourite diversion of the ancient Britons. By this exercise the young chieftains paid their court to the fair objects of their love, by displaying their agility before them, and making them presents of their game. So strong and universal was their passion for hunting, that young ladies of the highest rank and greatest beauty spent much of their time in the chase. "Comhal was the son of Albion, the chief of an hundred hills. One was his love, and fair was she, the daughter of mighty Conloch. Her bow-string sounded on the winds of the forest. Their course in the chase was one, and happy were their words in secret."\*

## CHAP. VIII.

### MISCELLANEOUS INFORMATION RESPECTING THE ANCIENT BRITONS.

**T**HE armories of the Britons were furnished with helmets, coats of mail, shields and chariots, and with spears, daggers, swords, battle-axes, and bows. The helmet, coat of mail, and chariot were confined to the chiefs, whilst the common soldiers always fought

\* Ossian.

fought on foot. The shield was like the target of our present Highlanders, slight, generally round, and always bossy. The sword was like that of the same mountaineers, large, heavy and unpointed. The dagger was similar to their dirk. The British chariots had their wheels frequently furnished with scythes, like the Gallic, were always drawn by two horses, and carried sometimes two persons, the driver and the warrior, and sometimes only one.

The Romans do not appear to have fostered any prejudices in the Britons, against the habits of their fathers. They did not endeavour, with the policy of the Tartar conquerors of China, to assimilate the natives to themselves in the distinguishing exteriors of dress. The general drapery of the nation was British, improved only with some additions from the Roman wardrobe. The British gentlemen, like the Gallic, retained their ancient ornament of chains; and the Britons, in general, did not adopt the Roman *pileus* as a covering for the head, but continued the use of their own caps, and such bonnets as are still worn by the peasants in Scotland.

The privileges of the great officers of the British court were particularly striking. They were all presented annually with a piece of linen and woollen cloth by the king and queen, and regularly gratified besides with old clothes from the royal wardrobe. The kings-riding coat was three times a year given away to the master of the mews; his caps, saddles, bits, and spurs became the perquisite of the master of the horse; and the chamberlain appropriated to himself his old clothes and old bed-quilts. The chamberlain of our own court, even in the reign of Edward the first, by ancient custom received the king's old coverlets, curtains, and bedding. Even to this day he receives at a coronation the furniture of the chamber, the bed, and the bed-dress, in which the sovereign slept

slept the night before.\* But in the palaces of the Britons, this principle was carried to so great a length, that even the wardrobe of the officers was in some cases inheritable by their inferiors. These were not all their privileges. They had a right to stated messes of meat, when they gave entertainments in their own apartments; the president of the palace being empowered to command three dishes and three horns of the best liquor, and the master of the mews three horns and one dish. But the latter was cautiously required to bring his cup in person to the hall, at every repletion of it, lest he should drink too much, and neglect his birds. And if the master of the mews, in the king's presence, killed one of the three birds that were denominated noble, the king was bound to assist him in dismounting and remounting, and to hold his horse while he took the game. But if he killed it in the absence of the king, he was required to hasten to the palace, and present the game to his majesty; and, by the etiquette of the court, the king rose up in compliment to him, or else gave him the mantle which he was wearing.

The vitrification of sand by the force of fire, which forms one of the most pleasing discoveries in the whole circle of domestic improvements, was at first merely the consequence of chance. Such have been almost all the great discoveries of man, as well as that of glass. Sand being vitrified by an accidental fire, art imitated the work of casualty.† Annulets of this metal have been discovered in many parts of our island, having a narrow perforation and thick rim; and, as the existing superstitions concerning them shew, they were once used as talismans among the druids. In the barrows on Salisbury plain, which are older than the invasion of the Romans, beads of glass have been discovered

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\* Howel. † Phny.

vered in numbers. As, therefore, the Britons had the art of forming beads and rings of glass, they certainly applied it to domestic purposes, and manufactured glass-vessels. These, like their annulets, were green, blue, yellow, or black, and many of them curiously streaked with other colours.\* The following was the process of the manufacture. The sand of their shores being reduced to a sufficient fineness, it was mingled with three fourths of their nitre, which was a fixed salt, and both were melted together. The metal being then poured into other vessels, was left to harden into a mass, and afterwards replaced in the furnace. It there became clear and transparent in the boiling, and was then figured by blowing, or modelled by the *lathe* into all such vessels as were wanted.

The British bill of fare was greatly enlarged by the Romans. The declension of the druidical religion removed the restraints, which the prejudices of national faith imposed upon their palates; and geese, hares, and hens were no more prohibited to be eaten. Nor were the original prohibitions of the Britons confined entirely to these. They extended also to the finny tribes, which inhabited their rivers and frequented their shores. And when an object has been employed in the ministries of religion, it has naturally such an odour of sanctity thrown over it, as must prevent it from being used in the common offices of life. Thus the hare being used by the Britons in that curious inquisition into futurity, which has always made a part of every merely human religion, was therefore interdicted the table.† Thus also the goose and hen, which were equally forbidden to the Britons, were in all probability employed in augury among them. Their abstinence from fish seems to have resulted from the same principle. They exalted their  
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\* Camden. † Whitaker.

rivers into divinities, and made the turbulent ocean around them an object of adoration. The Highlanders of Scotland to this day talk with great respect of the genius of the sea. They will not bathe in a fountain, lest the elegant spirit which resides in it should be offended and remove, and they never mention the water of rivers without prefixing to it the appellation of *Excellent*. In one of the Western Islands, the inhabitants retained the custom, to the close of last century, of making an annual sacrifice to the genius of the ocean. A quantity of ale having been prepared by a general contribution against All-Saints day, and the whole body of the islanders being assembled on the shore, the occasional priest of the festival walked up to his middle in the sea, bearing a full cup in his hand, invoked the deity by the title of *Shony* or *Water*, supplicated his kindness towards them, and poured the liquor in libation to the God. The anniversary was then concluded with feasting, dances, and songs.\* This was, perhaps, the reason why the Britons never fed upon fish. The same inventive spirit of religion, which stamped divinity upon the rivers and the ocean, which offered a sacrifice to the sea, and feared to offend the elegant genius of a fountain by bathing in it, would, in the full height of superstition, naturally consider the scaly inhabitants of the sea and rivers, as the little *Naiads* of both, and as sharing a part of their divinity with them.

But the Romans increased the variety of the British provisions, not only by the introduction of forbidden animals to the table, but by the importation of foreign ones into the island. These seem to have been rabbits, pheasants, cuckows, and pigeons, partridges, plovers, turtles, and peacocks. The peacock is supposed to have been brought into Europe from the East Indies,

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\* Harris's Western Islands.



Indies, where it is universally common ; but it must have been introduced in some very early period of time, since even Pliny speaks of it only as an European. It was a dish of considerable repute among the Romans, and was first placed upon the table by Hortensius the Orator, about 70 years before Christ, in a supper which he gave to the sacerdotal college. The rabbit was originally a native of Spain, and began to be brought into Italy in the days of Augustus. It is certain that rabbits were not natives of this island ; for there are none to this day in all the north of Scotland. But hares had always been ; and though they were only used for the purposes of divination, yet they were kept about the courts of the chiefs, from the delight which they took in breeding them. The idea of a hare-warren, and the model of a *park*, were originally derived to us from the primæval Britons. The cuckow just fledged, was reckoned by the Romans of the first century, to excel every other species of birds in the taste of its flesh. Here it is not considered as a bird for the table, but has been eaten by a few curious adventurers in feasting, and is said to be a delicate dish. The Italians retain the fondness of their ancestors for it to this day.

After the introduction of commerce, the side-tables of the old Britons were decorated with considerable splendor. On them were to be seen drinking cups of various sizes, and in number equal to those who sat at table. One of the cups was generally of silver, and the rest of wood, horn, and earth. The better sort sat at a table in the centre of the great hall. Their dependents, completely armed, as if on guard, formed a wider circle, and regaled themselves, at the same time, on long benches very little raised from the ground. When they had done eating, the most honourable man at the feast called for a cup of ale, and drank to the next on his right hand ; and the same cup being filled  
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to the brim to each person, went round the whole circle. The guests brought along with them their own knives and forks, which hung from the girdle in the same sheath with the dagger, which is called the *bidoc* by the ancient Scots. On some particular occasions, the hospitable chief placed parties of men on the by-roads of the country, to bring passengers, by a kind of compulsion, to his table.\*

Cock-fighting is a recreation, which has been universally supposed to be the production of the British genius. But it was known to many of the ancients, and introduced among us by the Romans; and the uncommon bravery, which has always distinguished our British breed, would soon induce these conquerors of the world, fond as they were of barbarous diversions, to train them up for the pit, to direct their courage against their brethren, and arm them with artificial spurs. Such exhibitions were less cruel in their nature, than their execrable shows of gladiators, and nearly the same, in the scale of humanity, with their baiting of the wolf, the bull, and the bear. And, as more than one of the cities of Britain built a large amphitheatre for the latter, so others of them would naturally erect a small one for the former. One at least seems to have been constructed for it; and that is the little circle of gravel, and sand, placed upon an eminence, directly fronting the eye as we go from Sandwich to Richborough castle.

The horse was originally an inhabitant of Britain, but the ass was not. It bore a considerable price among the Romans and Spaniards; and though its milk was not applied among the former to the purposes of medicine, it was early converted to the uses of vanity. In the higher period of their empire, it was supposed by the ladies to contribute much, as a wash,

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\* Macpherson.

wash, towards whitening their skin. Nero's consort kept a train of 500 milch-asses in constant attendance upon her, and had her bath continually replenished with their milk.\*

The magic rites, which were practised in our island, at this period, with such a wild solemnity, were merely the mixt effusions of medicine and superstition, each acting upon the other, and both heightening the whole. The three following plants were particularly the favourites of the druids. Samol was thought a remedy for all the diseases in cattle, vervain was a cure for every disorder in man, and the mistletoe was denominated the *All-healing plant*. Thus the vulgar mind, we see at present, is ready to receive every medicine that is obtruded upon it by the hand of quackery, as equally applicable in all the stages of a disorder, and certainly successful in all its operations. The mistletoe of the oak is to this day considered as a curiosity by our naturalists, and within a century and a half was reputed very medicinal by our physicians.

The British females, after the introduction of spinning, were so constantly employed at the distaff, that the spindle became the symbol of the sex; and still in England, when the banns of matrimony are published, those women, who have not been formerly married, are called *spinsters*. When a British virgin was marriageable, the lover addressed himself first to the father of the maid, and requested his daughter in marriage. And if he agreed to the overture, he opened "*the hall of the maid*," the apartment in which she generally sat retired from the men of the family, and introduced the suitor to his daughter. The period of courtship among the British women appears to have been generally as short as it was in the patriarchal age. A few days concluded the suit. The absolute authority of the father

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\* Pliny.

father took away all power of refusal from the daughter; and, if she disliked the lover whom he recommended, she had no other resource than the tears of entreaty, or the dangers of flight. The husband was entitled either corporally to chastise his wife, or to require a legal satisfaction from her, for *three crimes*, infidelity to his bed, embezzling his goods, or abusing his beard.\*

With regard to rites of sepulture, we shall here mention a very ancient one, which in some cases, is still retained. Many of the barrows, or repositories of the dead, were covered with heaps of small stones. At the present period, when a wretch dies by the act of suicide in Ireland, and is buried, as in England, at the intersection of two highways, the passengers, for some time after, have a custom of throwing stones upon their graves, till they have raised a considerable heap over them. But the original custom is still more perfectly preserved in Scotland. If a person there suddenly falls down dead, or loses his life by any accident on his journey, whether it happen on a road or in a field, a rude heap of stones is immediately thrown together upon the spot, by the first who discovers it, and the common people contribute to increase the pile, by adding each of them a stone to it. And there are some persons so religiously scrupulous in this respect, that they will turn out of their way for a quarter of a mile, in order to fetch a stone for the purpose; as the neglect, they apprehend, will be punished by some subsequent misfortune to them.

The barrows, or graves of our brave ancestors, have been generally preserved inviolate to our own times, by the respect which the religious principles of the Britons bestowed upon them. Of this we have very lively traces remaining among the Highlanders at present.

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\* Howel.

lent. They are firmly persuaded to this moment, that if a dead body shall be known to lie unburied, or to be removed from its sepulchre either by malice or accident, and immediate care be not taken for the interment of it, storms and tempests will arise to destroy their corn, overturn their cabins, and carry desolation through the country. And the late construction of the military roads in Scotland afforded a remarkable proof of this notion. An enormous stone, which crossed the intended line of one of the roads, being removed, a British sepulchre was found below, containing ashes, fragments of bones, and half-burnt stalks of heath. As soon as it was known to the Highlanders of the country, they assembled in arms even from the distant parts of it, and forming themselves into a body, carefully collected the relics, marched with them in solemn procession to a new place of burial, and there paid the military honours to the deceased by discharging their muskets over his grave.\*

Many of the nothern tribes excluded women from their future paradise, in order as they expressed it, "to prevent brawls and contention in the seats of the blessed."† But the softer sex, among the Britons and other Celtic nations, passed with their friends to the fortunate isles, and enjoyed the conversation of their husbands and lovers, in the regions of bliss. Their beauty increased with their change, and, to use the words of the bard, "They were ruddy lights in the island of joy."

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\* Birt's Letters. † Ne rixis earum omnia gaudia verterentur.

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## BOOK II.

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### CHAP. I.

MILITARY HISTORY FROM THE ARRIVAL OF THE  
SAXONS TO THE NORMAN CONQUEST, A. D.  
1066.

**M**ANKIND, in the possession of present good, are apt to overlook the prospect of future evil. The Britons did not foresee that their deliverers were to be their conquerors. The Saxons, however, after subduing the Scots and Picts, soon pulled off the mask. They complained that their subsidies were ill paid, and demanded larger supplies of corn and other provisions. These being refused, as exorbitant, they proceeded to open hostilities against the people they had come to protect. Many battles were fought with various success, in one of which the Saxon general Horfa was slain. The sole command now devolved upon Hengist, who carried desolation to the most remote possessions of the Britons. Anxious to spread the terror of his arms, he spared neither age, sex, nor condition. Of the unhappy Britons who escaped the general slaughter, some took refuge among inaccessible rocks and mountains; many perished by hunger; and many, forsaking their asylum, preserved their lives at the expence of their liberty. In this extremity, a British and a Christian hero appeared. Arthur, prince of the Silures, revived the expiring valour of his countrymen, and defeated the Saxons in several engagements. But after many bloody wars, in which the Britons were sometimes the enemies and  
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sometimes the allies of the Scots and Picts, the Saxons became masters of all England to the south of A. D. 584. Adrian's wall; but the Scots and Picts seem to have been masters of all the territory to the north, though they suffered the Britons, who had been driven into their territories, to be governed by their own tributary kings.

History affords an example of few conquests more bloody, and few revolutions so violent as that effected by the Saxons. In the course of their wars with the Britons, they established many separate kingdoms, the seventh and last of which was that of Northumberland. The names of the other kingdoms were Kent, Suffex, Essex, Wessex, Mercia, and East Anglia. These seven kingdoms formed what is commonly called the Saxon Heptarchy. To relate the separate history of each particular nation that formed the Heptarchy, would afford little instruction or entertainment. Jealousies and dissensions arose among the Saxon chiefs, and these were followed by perpetual wars, which are no more worthy of the historian's notice, than the *combats of crows and kites*.\* After a variety of inferior revolutions, the seven kingdoms of the Saxon Heptarchy were united under Egbert, king of Wessex, in the year 827. His dominions were nearly of the same extent with what is now properly called *England*; a name which was given to the empire of the Saxons in Britain, immediately after the termination of the Heptarchy.

Egbert was succeeded by his son Ethelwolf, who divided his power with his eldest son Athelstan. No inconveniencies seem to have arisen from this partition; the terror of the Danish invaders preventing all domestic dissensions. Time proved that this terror was but too just; for the Danes, though often repulsed,

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\* Milton.

ed, and sometimes defeated, always obtained their end, by committing plunder, and carrying off their booty. They avoided coming to a general engagement, which was not suited to their plan of operations. Their vessels being small, ran easily up the creeks and rivers. They drew them ashore, and formed an entrenchment round them, leaving them under a guard. They scattered themselves over the face of the country in small parties, making spoil of every thing that came in their way; goods, cattle, and women. If opposed by a superior force, they betook themselves to their vessels, set sail, and invaded some distant quarter, not prepared for their reception. All England was kept in continual alarm; nor durst the inhabitants of one part go to the assistance of another, lest their own families and possessions should be exposed to the fury of the ravagers. Every season of the year was alike: no man could reckon on a moment's safety. Encouraged by their past successes, the Danes at length landed in so large a body, as seemed to threaten the whole island with subjection. But the Anglo-Saxons, though labouring under the weight of superstition, were still a gallant people. They roused themselves with a vigour proportioned to the necessity, and defeated their invaders in several engagements. The Danes however ventured, for the first time, to  
 A. D. 852. take up their winter quarters in England; and receiving in the spring a strong reinforcement, on board 350 vessels, they advanced from the isle of Thanet, where they had stationed themselves, and burnt the cities of London and Canterbury.

The harrassed state of his kingdom did not hinder Ethelwolf from making a pilgrimage to Rome, to which he carried his youngest son, afterwards the famous Alfred, father of the English constitution. In his return, after a twelvemonth spent in devotions and  
 benefactions



benefactions to the see of Rome, he conferred a perpetual and very important donation on the church, by granting to the clergy a tenth out of all the produce of the land. Ethelwolf lived only two years after his return to England, which he left by his will to be divided between his two eldest sons. Ethelbert, the surviving son, was succeeded by his brother Ethelred, in whose time, notwithstanding the courage and conduct of Alfred, the Danes became masters of the sea-coasts, and the finest counties in England.

Ethelred having been killed, his brother *Alfred* mounted the throne, in the year 872. He was one of the greatest princes, both in peace and war, mentioned in history. He fought seven battles with the Danes with various success, and when defeated, he found resources that rendered him as terrible as before. He was, however, at one time reduced to a state of uncommon distress, being forced to live in the disguise of a cowherd. Yet he still kept up a secret correspondence with his brave friends, and made frequent sallies upon the Danes, who often felt the vigour of his arm, but knew not whence the blow came, nor by whom it was directed. At length a prosperous event emboldened the royal fugitive to leave his retreat, and enter on a scene of action more worthy of himself. Oddune, earl of Devonshire, being besieged in his castle by Hubba, a celebrated Danish general, made an unexpected sally upon the enemy, put them to the rout, and pursued them with great slaughter; killed Hubba himself, and got possession of the famous *Raven*, an enchanted standard, in which the Danes put great confidence. The news of this victory were immediately carried by the faithful earl to Alfred, who was happy to find the seeds of valour beginning to revive among his subjects. But before he would assemble them in arms, he resolved to inspect the situation of the enemy, and judge of the probability of success, as an unfortunate

nate attempt, in the present state of national despondency, must have terminated in final ruin. In consequence of this resolution, he entered the Danish camp under the disguise of a harper, and passed unsuspected through every quarter. He observed the supine security of the ravagers, their contempt of the English, and their neglect of all military regulations. Encouraged by these propitious appearances, he sent secret intelligence to his most powerful subjects, and summoned them to assemble, along with their retainers, on the borders of Selwood forest. The English, who instead of ending their calamities by submission, as they foolishly hoped, had found the insolence and rapine of the conquerors more intolerable than the fatigues of war, joyfully resorted to the place of rendezvous. They saluted their beloved monarch with bursts of applause. They could not satiate their eyes with the sight of a prince, whom they had believed dead, and who now appeared as their deliverer. They begged to be led to *liberty and vengeance*.

Alfred did not suffer their ardour to cool. He conducted them instantly to Eddington, where the Danes lay encamped; and, taking advantage of his previous knowledge of the enemy's situation, he directed his attack against the most unguarded quarter. Surprised to see an army of Englishmen, whom they considered as totally subdued, and still more to find Alfred at their head, the Danes made but a feeble resistance, notwithstanding their superior numbers. They were soon put to flight, and routed with great slaughter. Alfred, no less generous than brave, and who knew as well how to govern as to conquer, took the remainder of the Danish army, and their prince Guthrum under his protection. He granted them their lives on submission, and liberty to settle in the kingdoms of Northumberland and East Anglia, which were entirely desolated by the frequent inroads of their countrymen, on condition that they should

should embrace Christianity: They consented and were baptized. This mode of population fully answered Alfred's expectations; for the greater part of the Danes settled peaceably in their new possessions!

This great prince, during the last three years of his reign, enjoyed a profound peace, which he employed in establishing civil and military institutions, in composing the minds of men to industry and justice, and in providing against the return of like calamities. After rebuilding the ruined cities, particularly London, which had been destroyed by the Danes in the reign of Ethelwolf, he divided the kingdom into counties, hundreds and tithings, and established a regular militia for its defence.

But Alfred did not trust solely to his land forces; for among the other glories of his reign was that of raising a maritime power, by which he secured his coasts from future invasions. He may be considered as the creator of the English navy. Sensible that ships are the most natural bulwark of an island, a circumstance hitherto entirely overlooked by the Saxons or English, as they began now to be generally called, he provided himself with a naval force, and met the Danes on their own element. A fleet of 120 armed vessels was stationed upon the coasts, and being provided with warlike engines, and expert seamen, maintained a superiority over the enemy, and gave birth to that claim, which England still supports, to the sovereignty of the ocean.

In order to guide the magistrates in the administration of justice, he framed a body of laws, which still operate in full force under the name of *Common Law*, and established a mode of trial by juries, the best security of our liberties, both personal and political. He was so vigilant against any violation of this bulwark of our constitution, that he *hanged Cadwine*, one of his judges, for sentencing a man to death without the consent of the twelve jurors. His vigour pervaded every department

department of the state, and the police was so good, that golden bracelets were hung-up near the highways, and no one dared to touch them. He died in the year 901, and his character is so completely amiable and heroic, that he is justly dignified with the epithet of the *Great*. His civil and military qualifications equally claim our admiration. In him the virtues were so well tempered, and so justly blended, that neither exceeded its proper limits. He possessed the most enterprising spirit with the coolest prudence, and the most rigid justice with the gentlest mercy. With the highest capacity, and the most ardent inclination for science, he united the most shining talents for action. He knew how to reconcile the vigour of authority with the arts that conciliate love, and to give the sovereign command the air of a friendly request.

Alfred was succeeded by his son Edward the Elder, under whom, though a brave prince, the Danes renewed their invasions. His successor, Athelstan, in order to encourage commerce, enacted, that every merchant who made three voyages to the Mediterranean, should be put upon a footing with a *thane*, or nobleman of the first rank. He caused the scriptures to be translated into the Saxon tongue. He was successful in his wars with the Scots, and died in 941.

The reigns of his successors, Edmund, Edred, and Edwy, were weak and inglorious. Edgar, who mounted the throne about the year 959, revived the naval glory of England, and is said to have been rowed down the river Dee by eight kings his vassals, whilst he himself sat at the helm; but, like his predecessors, he was the slave of priests, particularly St. Dunstan, abbot of Gastonbury, who directed both the spiritual affairs of the king, and the temporal concerns of the kingdom. Nothing either in church or state was transacted, without his advice and concurrence. He was sole treasurer, and by his counsel most of the benefices in the kingdom.

dom were bestowed upon monks, while the secular clergy were totally neglected. This partiality to Dunstan rendered him too powerful for a subject. His zeal was as furious as his power was great, and his understanding as shallow as his ambition was boundless. The monks, however, whom he had so much obliged, took every opportunity of sounding his praise, and representing him as a prophet and apostle.

The circumstances of Edgar's marriage with Elfrida, daughter of Olgar, earl of Devonshire, were at once singular and criminal. The fame of this lady's beauty having reached his ears, he sent his favourite, Athelwold, to bring him an account if she was really so handsome as represented, being resolved, if she was, to obtain possession of her on honourable terms. Athelwold, overcome by those charms, which he found even to surpass report, upon his return to Edgar, sacrificing his fidelity to his passion, told him, that her fortune and quality alone procured her the admiration of the world, and that her charms, so far from being extraordinary, would have been entirely overlooked in a woman of inferior condition. "But," added he, "though she has nothing to claim the attention of a sovereign, her immense wealth would to a subject, be a sufficient compensation for the homeliness of her person, and though it could never produce on me the illusion of beauty, it might make her a convenient wife!" Edgar, ready to promote his favourite's interest, not only approved of his purpose, but forwarded his success by his recommendations to the parents of Elfrida, when Athelwold was soon made happy in the possession of his mistress.

Royal favourites are never without enemies. Edgar was soon informed of the truth; but before he would execute vengeance on Athelwold's treachery, he resolved to satisfy himself of the extent of his guilt. He accordingly told him, that he intended to pay him a  
visit

visit at his castle, and be introduced to his new-married wife. Athelwold was thunderstruck at the proposal; but, as he could not refuse the honour, he only begged leave to go before the king a few hours, to prepare for his reception. On his arrival, he informed Elfrida of his deceit and danger, and entreated her to conceal from Edgar, by every means in her power, that fatal beauty, which had seduced him from his fidelity to his friend. Elfrida promised compliance, though nothing appears to have been further from her thoughts. She took care to appear before the king with all the advantages, which the richest attire, and most engaging airs could bestow. This had the desired effect. She instantly excited in the bosom of the amorous Edgar, the highest love towards herself, and the most furious desire of revenge against her husband. He, however, dissimulated those passions, till, having seduced Athelwold into a wood, on pretence of hunting, he stabbed him with his own hand, and soon after espoused Elfrida.

One of the remarkable incidents of this reign, was the extirpation of wolves in England, which the king effected, by changing the tribute money, usually paid by the Welsh princes, into an annual tribute of 300 heads of wolves.

Edgar was succeeded, in 975, by his eldest son Edward, afterwards barbarously murdered by his step-mother, whose son Ethelred ascended the throne in 978. The nation was at that time harrassed by the Danes. To get rid of them, Ethelred agreed to pay 30,000*l.* levied by way of tax, and called *Danegeld*, which was the first land-tax in England. In the year 1002 they had made such settlements in England, that Ethelred consented to a general massacre of them. But this atrocious design served only to enrage the Danish king Swein, who, in 1013, obliged Ethelred, his queen, and two sons, to flee into Normandy, a province of France, at that time, governed

verned by its own princes, styled the dukes of Normandy.

Swein being killed, was succeeded by his son Canute the Great. But Ethelred returning to England, forced Canute to retire to Denmark; from whence he invaded England with a great army, and obliged Edmund Ironside, so called from his uncommon bodily strength, to divide with him the kingdom. Upon Edmund's being assassinated, Canute succeeded to the whole, which he enjoyed for some years in great tranquillity, and died in the year 1035.

With Canute fell the glory of the Danes in England; and at his death the torch of discord, which had lighted up so many woes to this country, began to burn with a more baleful lustre. Canute, though nursed in blood, trained to injustice, and habituated to barbarity, passed to the grave with the character of the mildest virtues. He acquired the surname of Great from his conquest; but merited that epithet much better from the virtues he displayed, during the pacific period of his administration. He was ever attentive to the interest of his people, and displeased with the adulation of his courtiers.

His son Harold Harefoot did nothing memorable, and his successor Hardicanute was so degenerate a prince, that the Danish royalty in England ended with him. The family of Ethelred being now called to the throne, Edward, commonly called the *Confessor*, succeeded, though Edgar Atheling, a weak youth, descended from an elder branch, had the lineal right. Edward was a great benefactor to the church, and excessively fond of the Normans, with whom he had resided. He was governed by his minister, earl Godwin, and his sons, the eldest of whom was Harold. It is said, that he devised the succession of his crown to William, duke of Normandy. Be that as it will, it is certain that, upon the death of the confessor, Harold,

Harold, son to Godwin, earl of Kent, mounted the throne.

William Duke of Normandy, though illegitimate, possessed that great duchy, and resolved to assert his right to the crown of England. For that purpose, he invited the neighbouring princes, as well as his own vassals, to join him, and made liberal promises to his followers, of lands and honours in England, to induce them to give him more effectual assistance. By these means he collected 40,000 of the bravest and most regular troops in Europe, and while Harold was embarrassed with fresh invasions of the Danes, William landed in England without opposition. Harold returning from the North, encountered William in Suffex, in the place where the town of Hastings now stands, and a most bloody battle was fought between the two armies; in which Harold being killed, the crown of England devolved upon William, in the year 1066.

The victor lost about six thousand men in this long and dreadful contest; but the number of English that fell was much greater. The next morning exhibited a scene of blood shocking to the eye of every humane beholder. The body of Harold was at last found among an indiscriminate heap of carnage, so deformed, that it would perhaps never have been known, had not a lady, whom he had kept as a mistress, distinguished it by a particular mark.

Thus died Harold in defence of English liberty, against the usurpation of foreign power.

His death put a period to the Anglo-Saxon government, after it had continued above six hundred years, from Hengist, the first king of Kent.



## CHAP. II.

## RELIGION OF THE SAXONS BEFORE THEIR CONVERSION TO CHRISTIANITY.

**M**EN not favoured with revelation, give their own passions and prejudices to the divinities whom they adore. Brought up in battle, and habituated to blood, the Saxons made their gods as fierce and untractable as themselves. The character given of Odin differs in no respect from the pictures we have of those bold and intrepid warriors, who led their predatory armies into the regions of the south. The supreme gods of other nations are represented as favourable to the existence of the human species. The chief title of Odin was the *Father of the Slain*. The events of this life, excepting the means of leaving it with renown and through violence, commanded little of the attention of his worshippers. His dominion therefore, in some measure, may be said to begin in the hour of death.

The mode of worship, among the Saxons, and their Scandinavian ancestors was as simple as their ideas of a divinity were unrefined. A great log of unfashioned wood, perpendicularly raised in the open air, was the common representative of Odin. This symbol they distinguished by the name of *Irmunful*, a word which, in their language, signified the universal pillar which sustains the world.

Thor, from which Thursday, the fifth day of the week, is derived, was only the title of Thunderer, annexed by all nations to the Supreme Divinity. Odin was worshipped under that name as presiding over the regions of the air, as the ruler of tempests, the director of thunder, the lord of the weather, and protector and nourisher of the fruits of the earth.

Contrary to the practice of the Celtic nations, the  
Saxons

Saxons, Danes, and other northern tribes, admitted a female divinity into the catalogue of their gods. As Odin was believed to be the father, *Frea* was esteemed the mother of all the deities. Odin was the irresistible principle which gives motion to every thing that breathes; and *Frea* furnished that portion of matter which is animated into living creatures by the active and pervading spirit, distinguished by the name of God.

In the most ancient times, *Frea* was the same with the goddess *Hertha*, or the Earth. Her worship filled the minds of her devotees with sentiments very different from those which the bloody altars of Odin inspired. During the feast held in honour of *Hertha* among the Angli, and their neighbours on the Baltic, an universal joy was spread over the country. Benevolence and hospitality prevailed in every quarter. War and discord ceased; and it was then only that peace and quiet were either known or loved. The universal parent of mankind did not, they justly thought, delight in the destruction of her race; and therefore every instrument of death was shut up during her supposed residence in the land. When she retired to her sacred groves, her warlike worshippers, whose bent to humanity was only temporary, recoiled with violence into their favourite occupation of slaughter and war.

To *Frea* the sixth day of the week was consecrated, which still bears her name.

With regard to a future state, though prejudice and education have sometimes eradicated the fear of death from whole nations, the love of existence seems to be immoveably planted in the human breast. Pleased with themselves, and even fond of a life which they call miserable, men look forward to dissolution with a melancholy awe, and are willing to place an eternity of being beyond the grave. The Saxon and Danish priests believed and taught the immortality of the human soul, and a state of rewards and punishments after

ter death. The place of rewards they called *Valhalla*, where the heroes spent the day in martial sports, and the night in feasting on the flesh of the boar, and drinking large draughts of beer or mead out of the skulls of their enemies whom they had slain in battle, presented to them by beautiful young virgins, who waited upon them at table. The place of punishment they called *Niflheim*, or *The Abode of Evil*, where Hela dwelt, whose palace was *Anguish*, her table *Famine*, and her bed *Leanness*. In the former of those places, all brave and good men, and in the latter, all cowards and bad men were to reside to the end of this world, when the heavens and the earth, and even the gods themselves were to be consumed by fire. After this general conflagration, a new and more glorious world was to arise out of the ashes of the former; the heroes, with all good and just men, were to be admitted into a palace built of shining gold; and cowards, assassins, false swearers, and adulterers, were to be confined in a place built of the carcases of serpents.

The description given of the dominions and person of Hela are full of fancy. "On the shores of the dead bodies, remote from the sun," says the Edda, "there is a spacious and dismal hall, with its gates wide open to the northern winds. The walls are wattled with snakes, whose heads look inward and vomit poison. Rivers of this poison rush through the hall, which the unhappy are forced to ford. But in the worst condition are those, who are precipitated into the inmost regions. They are tormented by the evil Demon, who dwells in the farthest darkness."\* Hela, who presides over these baleful regions, is herself a figure expressive of suitable horrors. One half of her frame is blue, the other bears the colour of the human

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\* Edda Mythol.

human skin. Her aspect is fierce and terrible; her temper unrelenting and cruel.

The terror which Hela and her dominions impressed on the minds of the Anglo-Saxons and their ancestors in Scandinavia, was perhaps as great an inducement to valour, as were the joys of Valhalla.\* Men however chose, for the sake of their reputation, to derive their contempt of life from the latter. To die with exultation and joy, under the torture or arms of an enemy, was as peculiar to the northern nations, as it was necessary to their renown. "The goddesses invite me," says Lodbrog, "the Valkyrian goddesses, whom Odin has sent from his hall. The hours of my life are passing away; with a smile I give up my soul."\*

The minds of the Saxons were much engaged in the prediction of future events, and their *divination* was very simple. It consisted of slips of wood cut from a fruit-bearing tree, and distinguished by different marks or notches. These they jumbled together in a white cloth. Then a priest, if it was a public ceremony, or, if a private augury, the father of a family, implored the assistance of the gods, and lifting up his eyes towards heaven, took up a slip three times successively, and prognosticated either good or evil, according to the number of marks on the piece he happened to take in his hand. They likewise prognosticated future events, by the singing and flight of birds, and from the neighing of horses, especially those of a *white colour*, which they considered as the ministers of the gods, and fed in woods and groves at the public expence. But their surest presages, with regard to the events of war, were drawn from the issue of a single combat, fought between one of their own champions, and a *captive* of the people against whom they had commenced hostilities.

Though in very ancient times the Saxons had no  
covered

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\* Heaven. † Vitz elapsæ sunt horæ, ridens moriar.

covered temples, they at last erected some of incredible grandeur and magnificence. The sacred fire was never extinguished, and near it stood a vase for receiving the blood of the victims, and a brush for sprinkling it upon the audience. Certain great festivals were kept with peculiar solemnity. One of the greatest of these was celebrated at the winter solstice. This feast was called *Yule*, a name by which our festival of Christmas is still known in many parts of Scotland, and in some parts of England.

An opinion that matter could be annihilated, was never admitted into the mythology of the heathen Saxons. To be reduced to its first principles, was what they called the *dissolution of the universe*. It is thus described in their prophetic writings. "The sun shall grow dark above; the earth shall sink under the ocean. The bright stars shall fall from heaven. Fire shall rage through the ancient fabric of the world; and the flames ascending, shall touch the very skies."\* The silence and darkness, which were to succeed the dissolution of the world; were not to be of long continuance. The old earth reduced into ashes, had sunk under the ocean. A new earth, green, beautiful, and pleasant, over all its regions, will afterwards rise gradually from the sea. The fields, without being sown with seed, will of their own accord, produce every sort of grain. A new sun will rise over the world, the daughter † of the former sun, who will be no less beautiful than her parent, and will follow the path of her mother through the sky. The souls of men will escape the ruin which shall overwhelm the universe. They will converge on the plains of Ida, where the virtuous will be indulged with every happiness and joy described, with romantic enthusiasm, in the Icelandic Edda. "In the southern quarter of heaven stands a hall supreme in beauty. It is

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\* Voluspa. † Sunna, the sun, is, in the Edda, of the feminine gender.

is brighter than the sun ; it is roofed with gold ; it stands after the destruction of heaven, after the ruin of the world. The good, the brave, the just, dwell in it through ages of joy. The dark-red flame, which consumed the earth and the skies could not render dim the lustre of this resplendent hall.

The northern nations seem not to have been much prejudiced in favour of their native climate. The seats of the unhappy are placed under the pole, and open to its winds, whilst the habitations of the blessed are near the sun. Cramped with the cold of the north, they looked for joy in the tepid regions of the south ; and the posterity of the Scandinavians shewed, by their successive migrations, that they wished to anticipate on earth the pleasing warmth of their celestial habitations.

### CHAP. III.

#### GENERAL STATE OF RELIGION AMONG THE ANGLO-SAXONS, AFTER THEY BECAME CHRIS- TIAN.

**T**HE Anglo-Saxons were converted to Christianity by the preaching of Austin or Augustine, a Roman monk, and the zeal of Bertha, daughter of Caribert, king of Paris, and wife to Ethelbert, king of Kent.

St. Gregory, who was advanced to the papal chair, in the year 590, prompted by his zeal for religion, and having his compassion excited by the sight of some beautiful English youths exposed to sale in the streets of Rome, resolved to attempt the conversion of their countrymen. With this view, he appointed Austin, and forty other monks, to go into England. He likewise furnished them with letters of recommendation to the king, queen, and several bishops of France, who received them kindly, and provided them with all ne-  
E cessaries

cessaries, particularly with interpreters, who understood the language of the Anglo-Saxons, then nearly the same with that of the Franks. Thus encouraged and provided, these missionaries sailed from France, A. D. 596 and landed in the isle of Thanet, from whence they immediately dispatched one of their interpreters, to acquaint king Ethelbert with the design of their coming. That prince soon after gave them an audience in the open air, and having heard their message, replied, that he could not without further consideration abandon the religion of his ancestors; but as they had come so far on a friendly errand, he assigned them a place of residence in the city of Canterbury, and allowed them to use their best endeavours to convert his subjects. Having thus obtained the royal licence, they immediately entered on the labours of their mission, which were crowned with such success, that in a very short time the king and great numbers of his subjects were converted. Austin baptized no fewer than ten thousand, on Christmas day, and was soon after consecrated archbishop of Canterbury.

But as the Anglo-Saxons received the Christian doctrine, through the polluted channels of the Church of Rome, though it opened an intercourse with the more polished states of Europe, it had not much influence either in purifying their minds, or in softening their manners. The grossest ignorance and superstition prevailed among them. Reverence for saints and relics seemed to have supplanted the worship of the supreme Being; donations to the church atoned for every violation of the laws of society; and monastic observances were more esteemed than moral virtues. Even the military virtues, so habitual to the Saxons, began to fall into neglect. The nobility themselves preferred the indolence and security of the cloister to the toils and tumults of war, while the crown, impoverished

verified by continual benefactions to the church, had no rewards for the encouragement of valour.

This corrupt species of Christianity was attended with another train of inconveniences, proceeding from a superstitious attachment to the see of Rome. The Britons had conducted all ecclesiastical matters by their own synods and councils, acknowledging no subordination to the Roman pontiff. But the Saxons, having received their religion through the medium of Italian monks, were taught to consider Rome as the capital of their faith. Pilgrimages to that city were accordingly represented as the most meritorious acts of devotion; and not only noblemen and ladies of rank undertook this tedious journey, but kings themselves, resigning their crowns, implored a safe passport to heaven at the foot of St. Peter's chair, and exchanged the purple for the sackcloth.

During the eleventh century, the pope and Roman clergy carried on a lucrative traffic in relics, of which they never wanted inexhaustible stores. Kings, princes, and wealthy prelates, purchased pieces of the cross, or whole legs and arms of the apostles, while others were obliged to be contented with the toes and fingers of inferior saints. An English archbishop, who was at Rome in 1021, purchased from the pope an arm of a saint for one hundred talents of silver,\* and one talent of gold.† This may enable us to form some idea of the knavery of the sellers, and the astonishing superstition of the purchasers, of those commodities. The building, endowing, and adorning of monasteries, was carried on with such mad profusion for more than a century, that a great part of the wealth of England was expended on these structures, or lay buried in their ornaments and utensils. "The masses of gold and silver," says a respectable historian, "which

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\* Six thousand pound weight. † Sixty pound weight.



“ which queen Emma, with a holy prodigality, bestowed upon the monasteries of Winchester, astonished the minds of strangers, while the splendor of the precious stones dazzled their eyes.” Let us be thankful to divine providence that we live in a more enlightened age, and let our improvement in knowledge and virtue bear some proportion to the advantages with which we are favoured.

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## CHAP. IV.

### GOVERNMENT AND LAWS OF THE ANGLO-SAXONS.

THE Saxon Annals are too imperfect to enable us to delineate exactly the prerogatives of the crown, and the privileges of the people after their settlement in Britain. The government might be somewhat different in the different kingdoms of the Hephtharchy, and might also undergo several changes before the Norman conquest ; but of those changes we are in a great measure ignorant. We only know, that at all times, and in all the kingdoms, there was a national council, a *Wittenagemot*, or assembly of wise men, whose consent was necessary to the enacting of laws, and to give sanction to the measures of public administration. The constituent members of this assembly were the nobility, the dignified clergy, and all freeholders possessing a certain portion of land.

The Anglo-Saxons were divided into three orders of men, the noble, the free, and the servile. The nobles, who were called thanes, were a very numerous body of men, comprehending all the considerable landholders in England. They were the genuine descendants and representatives of the ancient German companions of their princes. In times of war they constituted the flower of the armies, and in times of peace they swelled the trains of their kings and added greatly to the splendor

splendor of their courts. From this body all the chief officers, both civil and military, were taken; and to obtain offices under government was the great object of their ambition. Before they obtained an office, their lands were their only support, and they lived in greater or less affluence, according to the extent of their estates.

The freemen were denominated *ceorls*, and were chiefly employed in husbandry. Whence a husbandman and *ceorl* came to be synonymous terms. If any of them prospered so well as to acquire the property of five hydes of land, upon which he had a church, a kitchen, a bell-house, and a great gate, and obtained a seal and office in the king's court, he was esteemed a nobleman or thane. If a *ceorl* applied to learning, and attained to priest's orders, he was also considered as a thane. Success in trade, or in war, raised him to the same rank. Thus the temple of honour stood open to these *ceorls*, whether they applied themselves to agriculture, commerce, letters, or arms, which were then the only professions esteemed worthy of a freeman.

Slavery continued in England as long as the Saxons were heathens, and for some time after their conversion to Christianity. Slaves were by far the most numerous class in the community, and, being the property of their masters, were consequently incapable of holding any property themselves. They were of two kinds, namely, household slaves, after the manner of the ancients, and rustic slaves, who were sold and transferred, like cattle, with the soil. These last were called *villani*, or *villains*, because they dwelt at the villages belonging to their masters, and performed the servile labours of cultivating their lands. The bishops had authority to regulate the quantity of work to be done by slaves and to take care that no man used his slave harshly, but as a fellow-christian. The clergy also procured a law to be made, that all the English  
slaves

slaves of every bishop should be set at liberty at his death. But notwithstanding this, the greatest part of the common people groaned under the yoke of servitude, during the period of the Saxon government in this country.

The higher nobility and dignified clergy among the Anglo-Saxons possessed a criminal jurisdiction within their own territories, and could punish without appeal such as they judged worthy of death. This was a dangerous privilege, and liable to the greatest abuse. But although the Anglo-Saxon government seems at last to have become in some measure aristocratical, there were still considerable remains of the ancient democracy. All the freeholders assembled twice a year in the county-courts, to receive appeals from the inferior courts; a practice well calculated for the preservation of general liberty and for restraining the exorbitant power of the nobles.

The criminal laws of the Anglo-Saxons, as of most barbarous nations, were uncommonly mild. A compensation in money was sufficient for murder of any species, and for the life of persons of any rank, not excepting the king, and the archbishop, whose head, by the laws of Kent, was estimated higher than the king's.

The fine for all kinds of wounds was also settled. The price of a limb was not the same in all parts of England. The value of it in one county might be three pounds, in another but forty shillings.

But if the punishments for crimes among the Anglo-Saxons were singular, their proofs were no less so. When any controversy about a fact was too intricate for the ignorant judges to unravel, they had recourse to what they called the judgment of God; or, in other words, to chance. Their modes of consulting that blind divinity were various, but the most common was the ordeal. This method of trial was practised either by boiling water or red-hot iron. The water or iron  
was

was consecrated by many prayers, masses, fastings, and exorcisms; after which the person accused either took up, with his naked hand, a stone sunk in the water to a certain depth, or carried the iron to a certain distance. The hand was immediately wrapped up, and the covering sealed for three days, and if on examining it there appeared no marks of burning or scalding, the person accused was pronounced innocent; if otherwise, he was declared guilty.

Another way of performing the ordeal of hot iron was, by making the person who was to be tried, to walk blindfold, with his feet bare, over nine hot plough-shares, placed at certain distances. If he did this without being burnt, he was acquitted.

These fiery ordeals, however, were nothing but gross impositions on the credulity of mankind. The accused person was committed wholly to the priest, who was to perform the ceremony, three days before the trial, during which he had time enough to stipulate with him for his deliverance, and to give him instructions how to act his part. No person was permitted to enter the church, but the priest and the accused, till the iron was heated, when twelve friends of the accuser, and twelve of the accused, were admitted, and ranged along the wall on each side of the church, at a respectful distance. After the iron was taken out of the fire, several prayers were said, and the accused drank a cup of holy water, and sprinkled himself with it; which might take a considerable time, if the priest was indulgent. The clergy, likewise, were in possession of some secret, which they made use of when they saw reason, to prevent any disagreeable effects. No champion of the church ever sustained the least injury from the touch of hot iron in this ordeal; but when any one was so fool-hardy as to appeal to it, or to that of hot water, with a view to deprive the church of any of her possessions, he never failed to burn his fingers, or feet, and to lose his cause. The

The chief magistrate in all the states established by the Anglo-Saxons in this island, was called the *cyning* or *king*; a title of the most honourable import in their language, as including the ideas of wisdom, power, and valour, the most necessary qualifications of a sovereign, both in peace and war. Though hereditary succession generally took place, yet the next heir was passed by, to make way for a more distant relation of the royal line, who was judged more capable of reigning. The Anglo-Saxon monarchs were not absolute. The laws and customs of their country limited their power and prerogatives. To administer justice, and command the army in time of war, were the two chief duties of the regal office; and he who could not discharge both these, was considered by our ancestors as unqualified to reign.

The highest officer in the courts of the Anglo-Saxon kings, was the mayor of the palace, always a prince of the royal family. The priest of the household was the next in dignity, who sat at the royal table, to bless the meat, and to chant the Lord's prayer. The third in rank was the steward, who had a variety of perquisites, of which the following were the most remarkable. "As much of every cask of plain ale shall belong to the steward of the household, as he can reach with his middle finger dipped into it, and as much of every cask of ale with spiceries as he can reach with the second joint of his middle finger, and as much of every cask of mead as he can reach with the first joint of the same finger." There was also a judge of the household, who settled all disputes that arose among the servants of the royal family. A learned education, and a *long beard*, were indispensable qualifications of this great officer. The silentary was an officer, whose duty it was to command silence in the hall, when the king sat down to table. He then took his stand near one of the pillars, and when any

any improper noise arose, he immediately quashed it by striking the pillar with his rod. This useful officer was not peculiar to royal courts, and does not seem to be quite unnecessary in some great assemblies, even in modern times. But the most remarkable officer of all was the king's feet-bearer. This was a young gentleman, whose duty it was to sit on the floor, with his back towards the fire, and hold the king's feet in his bosom while he sat at table, to keep them warm and comfortable ; a piece of state and luxury unknown in modern times.

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## CHAP. V.

### STATE OF LEARNING AMONG THE ANGLO-SAXONS.

UPON the demolition of the western empire in the sixth century of the christian era, its rude and untutored conquerors, hurrying over the most fertile parts of Europe, ignorant of letters, and altogether addicted to the love and exercise of arms, quite neglected Roman literature and elegance. The Arabians too, in the course of a few years after this event, headed by the deceitful and enthusiastic Mahomet, rushed from their savage deserts to enforce the precepts of his religion, and, under his immediate successors, rashly dared to consume the valuable library of Alexandria, the rich deposit of whatever the best and wisest of the ancient world had been amassing for ages.

Among the christian clergy, where literature ought to have been cherished, the most excessive ignorance was to be found, and it is not uncommon to discover in the deeds of a synod, a sentence like the following: "As my lord bishop cannot write himself, at his request I have subscribed." Even Charlemagne, that

far-famed monarch, the theme of minstrels, and the hero of romance, was unable to write his own name, and forty-five years of his life had elapsed before he attempted any progress in literature.

When the Romans invaded Britain, they instructed and improved those whom they had subdued. The Saxons, being a fierce illiterate people, acted a very different part, and their destructive progress was marked with darkness and desolation. All the libraries left by the Romans, in this island, were destroyed by the ravages of war. In the year 690, king Alfred gave an estate of eight hides of land, for a single volume on cosmography. "At my accession to the throne," says this incomparable man, "all knowledge and learning were extinguished in the English nation; insomuch that there were very few to the south of the Humber who understood the common prayers of the church, or were capable of translating a single sentence of Latin into English; but to the south of the Thames, I cannot recollect so much as one who could do this."

In those dark ages, however, there were some men, who prevented the total extinction of literature in this island. *Gildas* the historian was one of these, and is the only British author of the sixth century whose works are published. He was so much admired by his countrymen, that he obtained the appellation of *Gildas the Wise*, though his works do not seem to entitle him to that distinction. His history of Britain is only valuable for its antiquity, and from our total want of better information.—*Columbanus*, a native of Scotland, was a learned monk and writer, contemporary with *Gildas*. He was educated in the famous monastery of Jona, and afterwards founded the abbey of Luxeuille in France, which he governed about 20 years with great reputation. He composed a system of laws, which were so severe, that if any of the monks smiled in

in the time of divine service, he was to receive fifty lashes with a whip.

*Aldhelm*, a near relation of Ina, king of the West-Saxons, and bishop of Shireburn, in the seventh century, was a man of very considerable literature, for the time in which he lived. Having acquired what learned knowledge Britain could afford, he travelled into foreign parts for improvement. He was the first Englishman who wrote Latin in prose and verse. His style is elegant, and his compositions shew him to have been well acquainted with philosophical and religious subjects. Alfred the great declared that Aldhelm was the best of all the Saxon poets, and that a favourite song, which was universally sung in his time, near two centuries after its author's death, was of his composition. When he was abbot of Malmesbury, having a fine voice, and great skill in music as well as poetry, and observing the backwardness of his barbarous countrymen to listen to grave instructions, he composed a number of little poems, which he sung to them after mass, in so sweet a manner, that they were gradually instructed and civilized. So true it is that,

"Music has charms to soothe the savage breast,

"To soften rocks and bend the knotted oak."

This learned prelate died in 709.

*Beda*, or *Bede*, surnamed the venerable, though he never attained to any higher station in the church than that of a simple monk, was the great luminary of England, and of the Christian world, in the eighth century. He was born at Weremouth in Northumberland, in 672, and died about 735. He spent his life, in the monastery of Jarrow, near the mouth of the Tyne. But though his life was humble and obscure, his fame spread over all Europe, and the pope courted his company, and his advice in the government of the church. He left many writings behind him, on a great variety of subjects. His ecclesiastical history  
of.



of England commences at the invasion of Julius Cæsar, and ends in 723. "The death of Bede," says William of Malmſbury, "was fatal to learning and particularly to hiſtory; inſomuch that it may be ſaid, that almoſt all knowledge of paſt events was buried in the ſame grave with him, and hath continued in that condition even to our times."

*Alcuin*, abbot of Canterbury, who lived about 70 years after Bede, was an eminent philoſopher, orator, and divine. Being ſent on an embaffy by Offa, king of Mercia, to the emperor Charlegmagne, he contracted ſo great an eſteem and friendſhip for him, that he prevailed upon him to ſettle at his court, and to become his preceptor in the ſciences. Some of his letters to that great prince breathe an excellent ſpirit. "By wiſdom," ſays he, "*kings reign, and princes decree juſtice*. Cease not then, O moſt gracious king, to preſs the young nobility of your court to the eager purſuit of wiſdom and learning in their youth, that they may attain to an honourable old age, and bleſſed immortality. For my own part, I ſow the ſeeds of learning in the minds of your ſubjects in theſe parts, mindful of the ſaying of the wiſeſt man: *In the morning ſow thy ſeed, and in the evening withhold not thine hand; for thou knoweſt not whether ſhall proſper, either this or that*. To do this hath been the moſt delightful employment of my whole life. In my youthful years, I ſowed the ſeeds of knowledge in the flouriſhing ſeminaries of my native ſoil, and in my old age I am doing the ſame in France, praying to God, that they may ſpring up and flouriſh in both countries." A French writer ſays, that to Alcuin, France was indebted for all the polite learning of which it boated, during ſeveral ages. This learned Engliſhman, compoſed many treatiſes on various ſubjects, in an elegant and pure ſtyle. He retired from Charlegmagne's court, to St. Martin's abbey, at Tours, in Flanders, where he died, in the year 804. The

The most learned man in Europe, about the middle of the ninth century, was a native of the town of Air, in North-Britain. *Johannes Scotus Erigena*, seeing his own country involved in darkness and confusion, travelled into Greece, where he acquired the knowledge of the Greek language and philosophy, which were very rare accomplishments in those times. The great work of John Scot is his book "concerning the nature of things," the most curious literary production of that age, being written with a metaphysical subtlety and acuteness then unknown in Europe.

The reign of Alfred is a most memorable period in the annals of literature, with the love of which the following circumstance first inspired him. He was not taught to know one letter from another till he was twelve years of age, when a book was put into his hand by accident rather than design. The queen, his mother, being one day in company with her five sons, of whom Alfred was the youngest, and having a book of Saxon poems in her hand, beautifully written and adorned, observed, that the royal youths were charmed with the beauty of the book. Upon which she said, "I will make a present of this book to him who shall learn to read it soonest." Alfred immediately applied to learn with such ardour, that in a short time he both read and repeated the poems to the queen, and received the book for his reward. From that moment he was seized with an insatiable thirst for knowledge, and reading and study became his chief delight.

Alfred the great was not only an universal scholar, but a great encourager of learned men; and, what is much to his praise, he employed his taste for knowledge, to promote the happiness of his subjects. He founded schools on a very extensive plan; and though Oxford had been a seat of learning in more ancient times, yet that university appears to have been so entirely ruined in the beginning of his reign, that he may justly

justly be styled the father and founder of it; a circumstance equally honourable to his memory, and to one of the most famous universities in the world. Learning revived under Alfred's auspicious reign, which clearly evinces that a prince, animated with a desire to diffuse knowledge and happiness among his subjects, can produce an alteration for the better in the spirit of a nation.

After the death of this incomparable man, the torch of science, which he had taken so much pains to relume, was totally extinguished, and the demon of ignorance and superstition spread her dreadful pall over the barbarous sons of prostrate Europe. He and a few others, whom history has delighted to hold up to our admiration, and whom it has embalmed with grateful praise, were but as meteors that flash on the surrounding gloom, are gazed at for a moment with stupid wonder, and are then lost in the darkness of returning night. "The succeeding age," says a learned writer, "for its barbarism and wickedness, may be called the age of iron; for its dulness and stupidity, the age of lead; and for its blindness and ignorance, the age of darkness."

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## CHAP. VI.

### OF THE ARTS AMONG THE ANGLO-SAXONS.

**F**EW improvements in the arts were made by the Saxons in England, after the first invasion of the Danes. These barbarians seem to have carried off with them, almost, all the bullion and ready money of the Anglo-Saxons; for Alfred the great left no more to his two daughters for their portions than 100*l.* each. Harold, however, many years after, in his last victory over them, recovered as much treasure as twelve stout men could carry.

The

The Anglo-Saxon husbandmen had but a very imperfect knowledge of agriculture. They ploughed, sowed, and harrowed their lands; but as all these operations were performed by wretched slaves, who had little or no interest in their success, we may be sure that they were executed in a superficial manner. Their ploughs were very slight, and had but one handle. They were unacquainted with water-mills for some time after their settlement in this country, and had no better way of converting their corn into meal, than by grinding it with hand-mills turned by women. The lands belonging to the monasteries were best cultivated, because the secular canons who possessed them, spent some part of their time in that salutary and laudable employment.

"In ancient times," says the author of the black book in the exchequer, "our kings received neither gold nor silver from their tenants, but only provisions for the daily use of their household. This custom continued even after the conquest, during the whole reign of William I. and I myself have conversed with several old people who had seen the royal tenants paying their rents in several kinds of provisions at the king's court." By the laws of Ina, king of the West-Saxons, the following rent was to be paid for a farm consisting of ten hides of land; namely, ten casks of honey, three hundred loaves of bread, twelve casks of strong ale, thirty casks of small ale, two oxen, ten wethers, ten geese, twenty hens, ten cheeses, one cask of butter, five salmon, and one hundred eels. In some places these rents were paid in wheat, rye, oats, malt, flour, hogs, and sheep, according to the nature of the farm, or the custom of the country. But though this was the usual mode of payment, money-rents for lands were not altogether unknown in England, in the period under review.

When the arts and practices of the husbandman were  
so

so imperfect, it cannot be supposed that those of the gardener had made greater progress. There is, however, sufficient evidence, that gardens were cultivated, and fruit trees planted and ingrafted, in this period, particularly by the monks. Brithnod, the first abbot of Ely, is celebrated for his skill in gardening, and for the excellent gardens and orchards which he made near that monastery.

The useful and necessary art of architecture suffered no less than agriculture, by the departure of the Romans. That ingenious and active people; with the assistance of their British subjects, who were instructed by them, had adorned their dominions in this island, with a great number of elegant and magnificent structures, both for public and private use. Some of these structures were built with so much solidity, that they would have resisted all the attacks of time, and remained to this day, if they had not been wilfully destroyed. This was done by the Anglo-Saxons in the course of their long wars against the unhappy Britons; for it seems to have been a maxim with these ferocious conquerors, to destroy all the towns and castles which they took from their enemies, instead of preserving them for their own use. Like all the other nations of Germany, they had been accustomed to live in wretched hovels, built of wood or earth, and covered with straw, or the branches of trees; nor did they much improve in the knowledge of architecture for 200 years after their arrival. During that period masonry was quite unknown in this island, and the walls even of cathedral churches were built of wood.

Masonry was restored, and some other arts connected with it introduced into England, towards the end of the seventh century, by two clergymen, who were great travellers, and had often visited Rome, where they had acquired some taste for these arts. These were the famous Wilfrid, bishop of York, and Benedict Biscop

Biscop, founder of the abbey of Weremouth. "In the year 674," says Bede, "Benedict crossed the sea, and brought with him a number of masons, in order to build the church of his monastery of stone, after the Roman manner, of which he was a great admirer. When the work was far advanced, he sent agents into France to procure glass-makers to glaze the windows of his church and monastery, who not only performed the work required by Benedict, but instructed the English in the art of making glass for windows, lamps, drinking-vessels, and other uses." The ancient Britons, indeed, were acquainted with this art, but the Saxons had seldom or never practised it, till this period.

The arts of building edifices of stone, with windows of glass, and other ornaments, do not seem to have flourished much for several centuries after their introduction; so that when any such buildings were erected, they were the objects of much admiration. When Alfred the great formed the design of rebuilding his ruined cities, churches and monasteries, and of adorning his dominions with magnificent structures, he was obliged to bring many of his artificers from foreign countries. Nor is it the least praise of this illustrious prince, that he was the greatest builder and the best architect of the age in which he lived. There is sufficient evidence, however, that long after his time, almost all the houses in England, and the greatest part of the monasteries and churches, were very mean buildings, constructed of wood, and covered with thatch. The Anglo-Saxon nobility had no taste for magnificent buildings, but spent their great revenues in mean, low, and inconvenient houses. This seems to have been owing in great measure to the unsettled state of their country, and the frequent depredations of the Danes, who made it a constant rule to burn all the houses, monasteries, and churches, wherever they came

came. From the few remains of Anglo-Saxon architecture in England, it appears, to have been a rude imitation of the ancient Roman manner, and very different from that which is commonly called Gothic, of which so many noble specimens adorn our country. The most admired of the Saxon churches seem to have been low and gloomy, their pillars plain and clumsy, their walls immoderately thick, their windows few and small, with semicircular arches at the top.

At this period likewise, our ancestors were acquainted with the arts of working in gold, silver, iron, lead, and jewels. The famous St. Dunstan, archbishop of Canterbury, who governed both church and state with the most absolute sway, was the best blacksmith, brazier, goldsmith, and engraver of his time. Many trinkets made by this celebrated mechanic were long preserved in the church, as the most precious relics, and objects of the highest veneration.

From the following lines it appears that he was the inventor of the Æolian harp :

“ St. Dunstan's harp on the church wall,  
 Upon a pin did hang:  
 The harp itself, with strings and all,  
 Untouch'd by hand did twang.”\*

Among the various artists collected by Alfred the Great, there were not a few who wrought in gold and silver, who, with the instructions of their royal master, performed several works in these precious metals, of incomparable beauty. The truth of this assertion is abundantly confirmed by that most beautiful jewel of exquisite workmanship, found at Ethelingley, in Somersetshire, where this great prince concealed himself in his distress, and where he sometimes resided in his prosperity. “ Alfred ordered me to be made” was the

the inscription upon this jewel, which was certainly worn by that prince.

Artificers who wrought in iron were highly regarded in those warlike times, because they fabricated swords, and other offensive arms, as well as defensive armour. Every military officer had his smith, who constantly attended his person, to keep his arms and armour in order. The chief smith was an officer of considerable dignity, in the courts of the Anglo-Saxon and Welsh kings, where he enjoyed many privileges. He sat next the domestic chaplain, and was entitled to a draught of every kind of liquor brought into the hall.

The number of battles fought in England, during this period, is almost incredible. We may, therefore, reasonably suppose, that the pernicious art of shedding human blood was brought to greater perfection than useful and beneficent arts. The Anglo-Saxon armies were generally attended in their march by waggons loaded with arms and provisions, and sometimes with their wives and children. With these waggons they surrounded their camp in the night, which served as a fortification. The art of war, however, was not reduced to a science, as it is in our times.

Nations who worship images naturally encourage those, who have any taste or genius for the art of making them. If the sculptor's art doth not owe its origin, it certainly owes its greatest improvements, to idolatry. The Anglo-Saxons, at the time of their settlement in this island, had the art of carving in wood, or cutting in stone, the images of Woden, Thor, Frea, and other imaginary deities. When Coifi, the chief priest of the Northumbrian Saxons, was converted to Christianity, he overturned the altars, and broke down the statues of their gods, in the great temple at Godmundham, near York. The shapes of the statues of these deities, with their various emblems, are still preserved in several authors.

The



The painters, as well as sculptors, of the ages we are now considering, were chiefly employed in working for the church, by drawing pictures of our Saviour, the Virgin Mary, the apostles, and other saints. The first pictures used in this island, for the ornament of the Anglo-Saxon churches, were brought from Rome. But as the expence of bringing them all from foreign countries was sensibly felt, such of the English, particularly of the clergy, as had a taste for painting, applied to that art, in order to furnish their own churches with these admired ornaments. The famous St. Dunstan was esteemed an excellent painter by his contemporaries. A picture of Christ drawn by this sainted artist, with his own picture prostrate at its feet, and several inscriptions in his own hand-writing, are still preserved in the Bodleian library.—The Anglo-Saxons were well skilled in the art of painting on glass, some monuments of which still remain.

Of all the pleasing arts, poetry was the most admired and cultivated, during the present period. The greatest princes were no less ambitious of the laurel, than of the royal crown. Alfred was the prince of poets, as well as the best of kings, and employed his poetic talents to enlighten the minds and civilize the manners of his subjects. The poets of the North were particularly famous, and much caressed by our Anglo-Saxon kings. "I know a song," says one of them, "by which I soften and enchant the arms of my enemies, and render their weapons of none effect. I know a song which I need only to sing, when men have loaded me with bonds; for the moment I sing it, my chains fall in pieces, and I walk forth at liberty. I know a song useful to all mankind; for as soon as hatred inflames the sons of men, the moment I sing it they are appeased. I know a song of such virtue, that were I caught in a storm, I can hush the winds, and render the air perfectly calm." Such is the power of poetry accompanied with music. Those

Those ancient bards, who had acquired so great an ascendancy over the minds of their ferocious countrymen, must certainly have been possessed of an uncommon portion of that poetic fire, which is the gift of nature, and cannot be acquired by art. This is directly asserted by one who was well acquainted with their works. "In other languages, any person of common understanding may make verses of some kind; and, by constant practice, may even become expert at making them; but in our Dano-Saxon language, no man can become a poet of the lowest order, by any effort, unless he be inspired with some degree of the true poetic flame. - This sacred fire, like all the other gifts of nature, is bestowed in very unequal measures. There are some who can compose excellent verses by help of thought and study; while others, blessed with a greater portion of the true poetic spirit, pour forth a torrent of verses of all kinds with perfect ease, without premeditation. This happy genius for poetry discovers itself even in infancy, by such manifest indications, that it cannot be mistaken, and is observed to be most ardent about the change of the moon. When a poet of this high order and fervid spirit is speaking of his art, or pouring out his verses, he hath the appearance of one that is mad or drunk. Nay, the very external marks of this poetic fury are in some so strong and obvious, that a stranger will discover them at first sight. The great poets, by certain singular looks and gestures, which are called *the poetical vertigo*."\*

In those days, every one who courted esteem, made it his study to be acquainted with vocal and instrumental music. To be ignorant of this art, was accounted disgraceful. Besides the harp, they had other musical instruments, particularly the small pipe, the bag-pipe, the flute, and tabor.

CHAP.

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\* Olaus Magnus.

## CHAP. VII.

## ● OF COMMERCE AMONG THE ANGLO-SAXONS.

THE Saxons, in achieving their sanguinary conquest, destroyed every trace of ingenuity which the Romans had introduced into the island, without bringing along with them one peaceful art, with which the Britons were not better acquainted; and the inveterate war between the princes of the Heptarchy afterwards destroyed, among their people, the usual progress of civilization. But no sooner was England united into one kingdom, under Egbert, than commerce and manufactures began to be cultivated in a country so highly favoured by nature, abounding in the materials of industry, and surrounded on three sides by the sea, which forms on its coasts many commodious bays and safe harbours.

The principal English exports, during the Anglo-Saxon times, were tin, lead, wool, hides, horses, and *slaves*! These slaves consisted not solely of such unhappy persons as the laws of war, or other causes, had reduced to the condition of perpetual servitude. The Anglo-Saxons are accused, by contemporary writers, of making merchandise even of their nearest relations; "a custom," adds a respectable historian, who lived after the Norman conquest, "which prevails in Northumberland, even in our own days."\*

Though the commerce and navigation of the Anglo-Saxons were cruelly injured by the piracy and predatory invasions of the Danes, yet England, under their government, contained many large trading towns, and a greater number of inhabitants, both in the towns and in the country, than could have been expected in such a turbulent and hostile period. London

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\* William of Malmesbury.

don, York, Bristol, Exeter, and Norwich were great and populous cities. The Bristol traders were distinguished, even in those early ages, by their mercantile sagacity. "The people of this town," says an author of undoubted veracity, "were cured of an inveterate custom, by Wulfstan, bishop of Winchester, of *buying men and women in all parts of England, and exporting them for the sake of gain.*"

Towards the conclusion of this period, the ships belonging to England amounted to about three thousand. From the representation of them in the famous tapestry of Bayeux, it appears, that they were a kind of galleys with one mast, on which was spread one very large sail, by means of a yard raised almost to the top with pulleys. Their shape was not inelegant, and their prows were adorned with the heads of men, lions, and other animals.

The Anglo-Saxon coins were mancuses, shillings, pennies, halfings, and feorthlings. The mancus was a gold coin, equal to seven shillings of our present money, and the shilling, a silver coin, was equal to eleven pence three farthings. The penny was likewise a silver coin, equal to three-pence of our money. As it would be inconvenient, at present, to have no smaller coins than crown pieces, so it would have been equally inconvenient in the Saxon times, to have had no coins of less value than those penny-pieces. To prevent this, they coined halfings, or halfpennies of silver, worth about three halfpence, and feorthlings, or the fourth of their penny, worth about three farthings of our money. Both these coins are mentioned in the Saxon gospels. But after all, when many articles were so very cheap; it would still have been inconvenient to have had no coin of less value than the silver farthing; and therefore they coined a brass piece of the value of half a farthing of their money, and of a farthing and a half of ours. These brass coins were called

called *styca*. The Anglo-Saxon pound was not a real coin. Coins of such weight would at any time be inconvenient; but when the precious metals were so scarce and valuable, they would have been peculiarly improper. Whenever, therefore, we meet with the pound in their laws and history, it signifies as many of their coins as were made out of a pound of metal, and, if thrown into the scale, would have weighed about twelve ounces Troy.

## CHAP. VIII.

### CHARACTER AND MANNERS OF THE ANGLO-SAXONS AND DANES.

THE Anglo-Saxons were tall, robust, and handsome. Their graceful appearance attracted the notice, and excited the admiration of Gregory the Great, when he beheld some English youths exposed to sale in the market-place at Rome. He was so much struck with the beauty of their persons, that when he was informed that they and their countrymen were not yet converted to Christianity, he broke out into this exclamation. "How lamentable is it, that the prince of darkness should have such beautiful subjects, and that a nation so amiable in their bodies should have none of the charms of divine grace in their souls! Their form is truly angelic, and they are fit to be the companions of the angels in heaven." Active in emergency, and intrepid to fatigue, the Anglo-Saxons were intrepid in danger. They were extremely hospitable, but addicted to excessive drinking, and very apt to quarrel when they got intoxicated. They were so fond of gaming, that after losing their estates and effects, they often played away their persons and liberties. Of the endowments of their minds it is not easy to form an estimate.

Many

Many of the Anglo-Saxons were remarkable for their longevity. When the famous Turketul, who had been chancellor of England, and one of the greatest warriors and statesmen of his time, retired from the world, and became abbot of Croiland, he found three very aged monks in that monastery, to whom he paid particular attention. The eldest of these monks died in 973, after he had completed the 168th year of his age; the second died the same year at the age of 142; and the third died in 975, in the 115th year of his age.

The Danes, who constituted so great a proportion of the inhabitants, and were for some time the predominant people of England in this period, were of as bold and intrepid a spirit, as the Saxons had ever been, and rather more fierce and warlike. In those ages, the people of Scandinavia, comprehending the kingdoms of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, breathed nothing but war, and were animated with a most astonishing spirit of enterprise and adventure. By their numerous fleets, they rode triumphant in all the European seas, carrying terror and desolation to the coasts of Germany, France, Spain, Italy, England, Scotland, and Ireland. The inhabitants of all these countries, especially of the sea-coast, lived in continual apprehensions of those dreadful enemies; and it made a part of their daily prayers to be preserved by Providence from their destructive visits. Born in fleets or in camps, the first objects, on which they fixed their eyes, were arms, storms, battles, blood, and slaughter. Nursed and brought up in the midst of these terrible objects, they by degrees became familiar, and at length delightful. Their childhood and their dawn of youth were wholly spent in running, leaping, climbing, swimming, wrestling, boxing, fighting, and such exercises as hardened both their souls and bodies, and disposed and fitted them for the toils of war. As soon as they began

to list, they were taught to sing the exploits and victories of their ancestors; their memories were stored with nothing but tales of warlike and piratical expeditions, of defeating their enemies, burning cities, plundering provinces, and of the wealth and glory acquired by brave exploits. With such an education, it was no wonder that their youthful hearts soon began to beat high with martial ardour; and that they early became impatient to grasp the sword and spear, and to mingle with their fathers, brothers, and companions, in the bloody conflict. It was one of their martial laws, "that a Dane who wished to acquire the character of a brave man, should always attack *two* enemies, stand firm and receive the attack of *three*, retire only one pace from *four*, and fly from no fewer than *five*."

The Anglo-Saxons and Danes were rude and unpolished in their address, and haughty in their deportment. Their own writers frankly confess, that the French in those times very much excelled them, and all the other nations of Europe, in politeness and elegance of manners. The manners of the Welsh, in this dark period; must have been even less delicate than those of the Anglo-Saxons; for they thought it necessary to make a law, "that none of the courtiers should give the queen a blow, or snatch any thing with violence out of her hands, under the penalty of forfeiting her majesty's protection."

With regard to their marriage ceremonies, on the day before the wedding, all the friends and relations of the bridegroom having been invited, arrived at his house, and spent the time in feasting, and in preparing for the approaching ceremony. Next morning the bridegroom's company mounted on horseback, completely armed, and proceeded in great state and order, to conduct the bride in safety to the house of her future husband. The company proceeded in this martial array

array to do honour to the bride, and to prevent her from being intercepted and *carried off* by any of her former lovers.. After the nuptial benediction was given, both the bridegroom and bride were crowned by the priest with crowns made of flowers, which were kept in the church for that purpose. Marriages, on that account, and for several other reasons, were most commonly celebrated in the summer season. The wedding-dresses of the bride and three of her maidens, and of the bridegroom and three of his attendants, were of a peculiar colour and fashion, and could not be used on any other occasion. These dresses; therefore, were anciently the perquisite of the minstrels or musicians, who had attended the wedding; but afterwards, when the minstrels had fallen into disgrace, they were commonly given to some church or monastery. At night the new-married pair were conducted to their apartment, and placed on the hymeneal couch, where they drank of the marriage-cup with all who were present. Next morning the whole company assembled in their apartment before they arose, to hear the husband declare the *morning-gift*, or what settlement and indulgences he would grant his wife; when a competent number of his relations became sureties, that he would perform what he promised. The feasting and rejoicing continued several days after the marriage, and seldom ended till all the provisions were consumed. To indemnify the husband, in some degree, for all these expences, the relations of both parties made him some present.

The laws of matrimony were observed with great strictness. Examples of adultery were extremely rare, and punished with much severity. The husband of an adulteress, in the presence of her relations, cut off her hair, stripped her almost naked, turned her out of his house, and whipped her from one end of the village to the other. A woman who had been thus exposed,



exposed, never recovered her character, and neither youth, beauty, nor riches, could ever procure her another husband.

Ladies of high rank generally nursed their own children. This laudable practice, however, did not continue to be universal among them, otherwise there would have been no occasion for the following severe remark. "A certain wicked custom hath arisen among married people," says one, "that some ladies refuse to nurse the children whom they have brought forth, but deliver them to other women to be nursed."

As the Anglo-Saxons admired valour and intrepidity above all other qualities, they were very anxious to discover whether their sons would be possessed of them, and had various methods of putting their courage to the trial, even in infancy. Of those modes the following was the most common. Upon a certain day appointed for that purpose, the family and friends being assembled, the father placed his infant son on the slanting side of the roof of his house, and there left him. If the child began to cry, and appeared to be afraid of falling, the spectators were much dejected, and prognosticated that he would be a coward; but if he clung boldly to the thatch, and discovered no marks of fear, they were transported with joy, and pronounced that he would prove a brave warrior.

As to rites of sepulture, it was so much the custom of the Anglo-Saxons to deposit the bodies of their dead on the surface of the ground, and to cover them with earth and stones, that they did this even when they buried them in churches; and the floors of some churches were so much incumbered with these little mounts, that they became quite unfit for the celebration of divine service, and were on that account abandoned. The inconveniencies of this ancient practice were at length so sensibly felt, that several canons were made against burying any in churches, except priests, or  
saints,

saints, or such as paid very well for that privilege. It was likewise decreed, that those who were buried in them should be deposited in graves of a proper depth under the pavement. The house in which a dead body lay before it was buried, was a scene of continued feasting, singing, dancing, and all kinds of diversions, which occasioned no small expence to the family of the deceased. In some places of the north, they kept the dead unburied, till they had consumed all the wealth which they had left behind them in games and feasting. This custom had prevailed in the times of Paganism, and was discouraged by the church; but it was too agreeable to their excessive fondness for feasting and riot to be soon abandoned.

The Anglo-Saxon kings, queens, and nobles, lived in a kind of rude pomp and state, and were always surrounded with a crowd of officers, retainers, and servants. Canute the Great, who was the richest and most magnificent prince in Europe of his time, never appeared in public, nor made any journey, without a retinue of three thousand armed men.

The Teutonic or Anglo-Saxon language is so ancient, that it is impossible to trace it to its origin. Some learned men have discovered a remarkable affinity between the Greek and Anglo-Saxon tongues, both in their radical words, and in their general structure. With this view they have collected a considerable number of words, which are names of the most necessary and common things, and of a similar sound and sense in both languages. The resemblance between the Anglo-Saxon and modern English is so great, that most of the words of the former are still in use, though many of them are much changed in their spelling and meaning.

The Anglo-Saxons and Danes long retained their fondness for bathing in warm-water, which they had derived from their ancestors the ancient Germans. In their

their laws, the warm bath is always considered as one of the necessities of life; and no less indispensable than victuals, drink, or cloathing. One of the most common penances enjoined by the canons of the church in those days, to such as had been guilty of great sins, was, to abstain, for a certain time, from the warm bath, and to give victuals, drink, clothes, firing, bath, and beds, to a certain number of poor people. On the other hand, they had a very great aversion to bathing in cold water, which was also enjoined as a penance. To bathe at least every Saturday was the constant practice of all, who had any regard to personal propriety, and wished to recommend themselves to the favour of the ladies.

The nobility spent the greatest part of their revenues in giving entertainments to their friends and followers. These feasts were more remarkable for their abundance than for their elegance. Some kinds of provisions were then used which would not now be touched, but in the greatest extremities of famine. The Danish inhabitants of Northumberland, in particular, were fond of horse-flesh, which they devoured in great quantities.\* Ale was the favourite liquor of the Anglo-Saxons and Danes, as it had been of their German ancestors. As trade was in its infancy, wine was both scarce and dear in Britain, during this period. Mead was also one of the luxuries of life, and could only be procured by persons of considerable opulence. Pigment was one of the richest and most delicious liquors of those times, and so much admired both in England and on the continent, that it was commonly called nectar. It was a sweet and odoriferous liquor, made of honey, wine, and spices of various kinds. Morat was also esteemed a delicacy, and was only found at the tables of the great. It

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\* Wilkins,

It was made of honey, diluted with the juice of mulberries.

As war was the chief delight of the Anglo-Saxon thanes, and their followers, the amusements of their youth, and even of their riper years, were of a martial nature. A young warrior thus recounts the exercises by which he had acquired dexterity by constant practice: "I fight valiantly; I sit firmly on horseback; I am inured to swimming; I know how to run along on skates; I dart the lance, and am skilful at the oar."\* Their fondness for games of chance has already been mentioned. When a young nobleman applied to a father for permission to pay his addresses to his daughter, the parent generally made a trial of his temper, by playing with him at dice and chess, before he gave him an answer. The game of backgammon was invented in Wales, during this period, and derives its name from two the Welsh words, *back* and *cammon*, signifying *little battle*.

BOOK

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\* Northern Antiquities.

## BOOK III.

## CHAP I.

MILITARY HISTORY FROM THE NORMAN CONQUEST, TO THE DEATH OF KING JOHN, A. D. 1216.

WE have already seen William, duke of Normandy; victorious at Hastings. Nothing could exceed the astonishment of the English nation, when made acquainted with the issue of that unfortunate battle. In order to terminate an enterprize, which he knew dispatch alone could render successful, William instantly put his army in motion, and advanced by forced marches to London. His approach increased the general alarm, and the divisions already prevalent in the English councils. The superior clergy, of whom the majority were his own countrymen, began to declare in his favor; and the pope's bull, by which his undertaking was avowed and consecrated, was now openly offered as a reason for general submission. Other causes rendered it difficult for the English nation to defend their liberties, in this critical emergency. The body of the people had, in a great measure, lost their ancient pride and independent spirit, by their recent subjection to the Danes, and deemed the inconveniencies of admitting the pretensions of William less dreadful than those of bloodshed, war, and resistance. A repulse, which a party of Londoners received from five hundred Norman horse, renewed the terror of the great defeat at Hastings. The easy submission of all the inhabitants of Kent was an additional discouragement to them; and the burning of Southwark made the citizens of London dread a like

like fate for their capital. Few men entertained any thoughts but of self-preservation.

The bishops set the example. The nobles, with Edgar Atheling, the natural heir to the crown, waited upon William, and declared their intention of yielding to his authority. All seemed in a state of harmony; and William, who at first was inclined to defer his coronation till the consent of the nation at large were obtained, now hastened the ceremony. It was accordingly performed in Westminster-Abbey, in presence of the most considerable nobility and gentry, both English and Norman, with apparent satisfaction.

The new sovereign confirmed the liberties and immunities of London, and all the other cities of England. In his whole administration he bore the semblance of the lawful prince, not of the conqueror; so that the English began to flatter themselves they had only changed the succession of their sovereigns, (a matter which gave them little concern,) without injury to their form of government.

But William, notwithstanding this seeming confidence and friendship, which he expressed for his English subjects, took care to place all real power in the hands of the Normans. He every where disarmed the inhabitants. He built fortresses in all the principal cities, where he quartered Norman soldiers. He bestowed the forfeited estates on the most powerful of his captains. To one of his favorites he gave the whole county of Chester, which he erected into a palatinate, and rendered by his grant almost independent of the crown. While his civil administration wore the face of the legal magistrate, his military institutions were those of a master and tyrant.

By this mixture of rigour and lenity, he so subdued and composed the minds of the people of England, that he ventured to visit his native country, within six months after he had left it. On this ostentatious tour

the English nobles accompanied the king. Their dress, equipage, and rich plate, astonished the Normans, who, nevertheless, looked on them as prisoners led in triumph. Mean while Edgar Atheling, although respectfully treated by the new sovereign, thought proper to retire from England with his sisters. His friends assert that his flight was guided by heaven, as it gained Malcolm of Scotland for the princess Margaret, by whose offspring the Saxon race was restored to the throne of England, in the next reign but one.

Insurrections now appeared in every part of the country, which served only to rivet the chains of the English. Acquainted with the restless disposition of the Northumbrians, who had begun the revolt, and determined to incapacitate them from ever more molesting him, William issued orders for laying waste that fertile country, which, to the extent of sixty miles, lies between the Humber and the Tees. The houses were reduced to ashes by the unfeeling Normans; the cattle were seized and driven away; the instruments of husbandry were destroyed; and the inhabitants were compelled either to seek a subsistence in the southern parts of Scotland, or to perish miserably in the woods from cold and hunger, which many of them chose rather to do than abandon their native soil. The lives of an hundred thousand persons are computed to have been sacrificed to this stroke of barbarous policy. But William was now determined to proceed to extremities against all the natives of England, and to reduce them to a condition in which they should be no longer formidable to his government. It was a crime sufficient in an Englishman to be opulent, noble, or powerful; and the policy of the king concurring with the rapacity of needy adventurers, produced an almost total revolution in the landed property of the kingdom. Ancient and honourable families were reduced to beggary. The nobles were every where

where treated with ignominy and contempt, whilst their estates were divided amongst the new-comers, subject to those military services which had been used on the continent.

At this period likewise, as complete a change was made in the ecclesiastical, as in the civil state of the realm; for under the pretext of disaffection to the Norman government, almost every Anglo-Saxon of rank or wealth in the church was deprived of his benefice, and replaced by a foreigner. To effect these alterations, the pope, whose vanity and avarice the sagacious conqueror took care to gratify, aided him with the full force of his then exorbitant authority. The king had even entertained the difficult project of totally abolishing the language of this country. He ordered the English youth to be instructed in the French tongue, in all the schools throughout the kingdom. The pleadings in the supreme courts of judicature were in French. The deeds were often drawn in the same language; and the laws were composed in that idiom. No other tongue was used at court. It became the language of all fashionable societies, and the natives themselves affected to excel in it. To this attempt of the Conqueror, and to the foreign dominions so long annexed to the crown of England, we owe that predominant mixture of French in our language. In short, nothing was left untried, which had a tendency to obliterate every trace of the Anglo-Saxon constitution.

William built the stone square tower at London, commonly called the *White Tower*. He also caused a general survey of all the lands of England to be made. This curious and political work, called *Domesday-book*, is still preserved in the Exchequer. No nation now existing can boast such valuable monuments of antiquity, in so entire preservation; nor can there be a higher proof of their genuine worth, than there being allowed



as uncontrovertible evidence in every court of law.

William's love of the chase prompted him not only to enact severe laws against those who interfered with him in this favourite amusement, but also to depopulate the country in Hampshire, to the extent of thirty miles. Having turned out the inhabitants, and destroyed all the villages, houses, plantations, and even churches, which stood within that tract, he reserved it for the habitation of wild beasts; and distinguished it by the name of the New Forest.

But the repose of this fortunate king was disturbed in his old age, by the rebellion of his eldest son Robert, who had been appointed governor of Normandy, but now assumed the government as sovereign of that province, in which he was favoured by the King of France. William seeing a war inevitable entered upon it with his usual vigour, and with incredible celerity, transporting a brave English army, invaded France.

As the grounds of a quarrel between the Norman and Philip were not very important, a truce was soon concluded, and a perfect harmony might have been restored, had not the French monarch dropt a sarcastic remark on the enormous corpulency of his antagonist. William had kept his bed some days, and was told that Philip had enquired, whether the King of England was not yet delivered of his great belly? This coarse jest had fatal consequences. For the irritated William, alluding to the customs of France, sent word to Philip that "ten thousand lances should attend his churching at Notre Dame, instead of the usual tapers." To make his promise good, he flew to arms, and laid waste the Isle of France to the walls of Paris. He took and burnt the city of Mantes, sparing neither churches, convents, nor the hapless priests and nuns, who had fled to their shelter. This falling out in the most sultry part of a very hot summer, the heat of the weather joined to that of the flames which consumed Mantes,

Mantes, and a bruise from the pommel of his saddle, finished the earthly course of the hitherto invincible hero, on the ninth of September, 1087.

The spirit of William I. was bold and enterprising, yet guided by prudence; and his exorbitant ambition, which lay little under the restraints of justice, and still less under those of humanity, ever submitted to the dictates of reason and sound policy. Though not insensible to generosity, he was hardened against compassion, and he seemed equally ostentatious, and ambitious of eclat, in his clemency and in his vengeance.

William II. surnamed Rufus, or the Red, from the colour of his hair, a brave and intrepid prince, was engaged in perpetual wars with his rebellious subjects. The succession to the crown of England was disputed between him and his elder brother, Robert, whom the Normans very much loved, but was carried in his favour. About this time the crusades to the Holy Land began, and Robert, who was among the first to engage, accommodated matters with William for a sum of money, which he levied from the clergy. Numbers of undisciplined enthusiasts, under Peter the Hermit, and Walter the Penniless, now plundered and fought their way through Hungary to the walls of Constantinople, leaving myriads of their comrades sacrificed to the revenge of those whom they had pillaged. The emperor Alexis relieved them, but, as they laid waste the suburbs of his capital, he encouraged Walter to lead them against the Turks, by whom they were all cut to pieces.

William behaved with great generosity towards Edgar Atheling and the court of Scotland, notwithstanding all the provocations he had received from that quarter. He was accidentally killed, as he was hunting in the New Forest, by Sir Walter Tyrrel, a French gentleman, who instantly embarked for the Holy Land to expiate his involuntary

involuntary crime. The body was conveyed to Winchester in a common cart. A tomb erected over it was broken to pieces in the last civil-wars, and a large gold ring with a silver chalice were found mingled with the royal dust. This prince built Westminster-hall as it now stands, and added several works to the tower, which he surrounded with a wall and ditch.

Prince Henry, surnamed *Beauclerc*, on account of his learning, was hunting with Rufus in the New Forest, when he received intelligence of that monarch's death. Having therefore secured the royal treasure at Winchester, which he knew to be necessary for facilitating his designs on the crown, he hastened to London with it, where in less than three days he was crowned. Thus by his courage and celerity he intruded himself into the vacant throne, no one having sufficient spirit or sense of duty to appear in favour of Robert, who was still engaged in the Crusade. He rendered himself still more popular by his marriage with Matilda, daughter of Malcolm, king of Scotland, and niece to Edgar Atheling. This lady, on the death of her father, had been educated in a nunnery in England, and had worn the veil, but never taken the vows; a circumstance which was, at first, thought to militate against her being permitted to marry. It was however determined in a council of prelates and nobles, that as she had assumed the veil for the protection of her honour, during the late troubles, she was still free to marry; and her nuptials were celebrated with great pomp and solemnity. Thus was the long breach between the Saxon and Norman interests finally united, to the great satisfaction of the English.

Henry made himself master of the duchy of Normandy, and, with a most ungenerous meanness, detained his brother Robert a prisoner, for 28 years, till the time of his death. He was afterwards engaged in a bloody but successful war with France. He died in  
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the seventy-eighth year of his age, having settled the succession upon his daughter, the empress Matilda, widow to Henry IV. emperor of Germany, and her son Henry, by her second husband Geoffry Plantagenet, earl of Anjou.

The crown of England, however, was seized by Stephen earl of Blois, the son of Adela, fourth daughter to William the Conqueror. In the mean time, Matilda found a generous protector in her uncle, David, king of Scotland, and a worthy subject in her natural brother Robert, earl of Gloucester, who headed her party, till her son was of age. A long and bloody war ensued, when the barons, who dreaded the power of the clergy, inclined towards Matilda; and Stephen, having been abandoned by his partizans, was defeated and taken prisoner in 1141. The nobility and clergy now demanded to be governed by the Saxon laws, according to the charter granted by Henry I. and finding Matilda refractory, they drove her out of England in 1142. Stephen having been exchanged for the earl of Gloucester, who had been likewise taken prisoner, upon obtaining his liberty, found that his clergy and nobility had in fact excluded him from the government, by building 1100 castles, where each owner lived as an independent prince. Stephen attempted to force them to declare his son, Eustace, heir apparent to the kingdom. This exasperated the clergy so much, that they invited over young Henry of Anjou, who landed in England with an army of foreigners. Eustace dying about this time, his father, Stephen, was permitted to retain the name and office of king, during his life; and Henry, who was in fact invested with the chief executive power, was acknowledged his successor.

Henry II. surnamed Plantagenet, was by far the greatest prince of his time. The first acts of his government corresponded with the high idea entertained  
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of his abilities. He dismissed all the mercenary troops, and demolished the new-erected castles, which had proved so many sanctuaries to rebels. But the exorbitant power of the clergy, and the conduct of Thomas à Becket, whom he had raised from a low station to the dignity of chancellor, and primate of all England, gave him great uneasiness. Becket, while Chancellor, was pompous in his retinue, sumptuous in his furniture, and luxurious in his table, beyond what Britain had ever seen in a subject. His house was a place of education for the sons of the chief nobility, and the king himself often condescended to partake of his entertainments. His amusements were as gay, as his manner of life was splendid and elegant. He employed himself, at leisure hours, in hunting, hawking, gaming, and horsemanship. His complaisance and good humour had rendered him agreeable, and his industry and abilities useful to his master. But no sooner was he installed in the see of Canterbury, which rendered him the second person in the kingdom, than he secretly aspired at being the first. He maintained in his retinue and attendants alone, his usual pomp and lustre; in his own person he affected the greatest austerity and mortification. He wore sack-cloth next his skin; his food was generally bread, and his drink water; he lacerated his back with frequent discipline, and he daily washed the feet of thirteen beggars. Thus did Becket, by a pretended sanctity, set himself up the champion of the clergy in opposition to the crown. The king assembled his nobility at Clarendon, a name still famous for the constitutions there enacted, which abolished the authority of the Romish see over the English clergy. Becket finding it in vain to resist the stream, signed those constitutions, till they could be ratified by the pope, who as he foresaw, rejected them. In the mean time, however, being convicted of robbing the public, while he was chancellor, he fled to France;

France, where the pope and the French king espoused his cause. The consequence was that all the English clergy on the king's side were excommunicated, and the subjects absolved from their allegiance. This disconcerted Henry so much, that he submitted to treat with his rebel prelate, and, on one occasion, humiliated himself so far, as to hold the stirrup while he mounted his horse. This condescension swelled his pride, and increased his insolence, which at last became insupportable to Henry. Finding that he was only the first subject in his own dominions, he was heard to say in the anguish of his heart, "Is there none who will revenge his monarch's cause upon this audacious priest? These words reached the ears of four knights, who immediately set out for Canterbury, and A. D. 1171. murdered Becket before the altar of his own church. Such was the tragical death of this lofty and inflexible prelate, who was able to cover from the world, and probably from himself, the efforts of pride and ambition, under the disguise of sanctity, and of zeal for the interests of religion.

The intelligence of this murder threw Henry into the greatest consternation. He shut himself up for three days, and refused to take any sustenance. He chiefly dreaded the displeasure of the pope. He found means, however, by a well-timed embassy, to divert the pontiff's anathemas from himself; they were only levelled in general against all the actors, accomplices, and abettors of the murder. The clergy, though their rage was thus happily diverted from falling immediately on the king, were not idle in extolling the merits of Becket's martyrdom. Endless were their panegyrics on his piety. Two years after his death he was canonized by pope Alexander; miracles were wrought by his reliques; a solemn jubilee for celebrating his virtues was established; his body was removed to a magnificent shrine, enriched with presents from all

all parts of Christendom ; and it is computed that, in one year, above an hundred thousand pilgrims arrived at Canterbury, and paid their devotions at his tomb. It is indeed a mortifying reflection to those who are actuated by the love of fame, so justly denominated the last infirmity of noble minds, that the wisest legislator, and most exalted genius that ever reformed or enlightened the world, can never expect such tributes of praise, as are lavished on the memory of pretended saints. It is only a conqueror, by no means an amiable character, who can pretend to the attainment of equal renown and glory.

As soon as Henry found that he was in no immediate danger from the thunders of the vatican, he undertook an expedition against Ireland, which he conquered. His marriage with Eleanor the divorced queen of France, heiress of Guienne and Poitou, made him very powerful in that country.

About this time, the King of Scotland invaded England with an army of 80,000 men. Sensible of his danger, and of the effects of superstition on the minds of the people, Henry went barefoot to Becket's tomb, prostrated himself before the shrine of the saint, remained in fasting and praying during a whole day, and watched all night the holy reliques. Heaven submitted to a penance still more singular and humiliating. He assembled a chapter of the monks, put a scourge of discipline into the hands of each, and presented his bare shoulders to the lashes which these ecclesiastics inflicted upon him ! Next morning he received absolution ; and his generals obtained, on the same day, a great victory over the Scots, which was regarded as a proof of his final reconciliation with Heaven, and with Thomas à Becket.

The amours of this monarch rendered him unhappy in his old age. Among the number of his mistresses, was Rosamond, daughter of Lord Clifford, usually distinguished

tinguished by the appellation of *Fair Rosamond*, on account of her exquisite beauty. We are told, that Henry, who entertained a violent and lasting affection for this lady, concealed her in a labyrinth, in Woodstock park, where she was at length discovered, and poisoned by the queen; but this part of the story, though adopted by many historical writers, seems to be fabulous. His infidelity, however, was resented by Eleanor, who encouraged his sons in repeated rebellions, which so affected their father, that he died of a fever at Chinon A. D. 1189. in France, in the 57th year of his age. For wisdom, virtue, and abilities, Henry was the greatest prince of his time.

Richard I. the eldest surviving son of Henry II. surnamed *Cœur de Lion*, from his great courage, made a most magnificent crusade to the Holy Land, where he took Ascalon, and performed prodigies of valour. After several glorious, but fruitless campaigns, he made a truce of three years with Saladin emperor of the Saracens. In his return to England, he was treacherously surprised by the duke of Austria, who sent him a prisoner to Henry VI. His ransom was fixed by the sordid emperor at three hundred thousand pounds.

The truce being expired, the war between England and France was resumed, and carried on by both parties with great animosity and cruelty. At last, however,

A. D. 1199. Richard was killed at the siege of ~~Châlon~~ *Châlon*. One Bertrand de ~~Gourdon~~ *Gourdon*, an archer, took aim at him, and pierced his ~~shoulder~~ *shoulder* with an arrow. The king immediately gave orders for the assault, took the place, and hanged all the garrison, except Gourdon, whom he reserved for a more cruel execution. The wound in itself was not dangerous; but the unskilful surgeon in extracting the arrow, so rankled the part, that a gangrené ensued, and it proved mortal. When Richard found his end approaching, he

+ Richard I. 1199



he sent for Gourdon, and asked why he sought his life. "My father, and my two brothers," replied the undaunted soldier, "fell by your sword, and you intended to have executed me. I am now in your power, and you may do your worst; but I shall endure the most severe torments with pleasure, since Heaven has afforded me such revenge, as, with my own hand, to be the cause of your death." Struck with the boldness of the reply, and humbled by his approaching dissolution, Richard ordered the prisoner to be set at liberty. But his blood-thirsty general, Marcadee, a stranger to such generosity, seized the unhappy man, flayed him alive, and then hanged him.

The reign of John, who succeeded his brother Richard I. is infamous in the English history. He put to death prince Arthur, who had the hereditary right to the crown, being the eldest son of his brother Geoffry. His misfortunes commenced with this crime. All men were struck with horror at the inhuman deed, and he was from that moment detested by his subjects, both in England and on the continent. Through his baseness and cowardice, the English lost the greatest part of their territories in France. The church also, which had not declined a contest with the most powerful monarchs, took advantage of John's imbecility, and with the most aggravating circumstances of insolence and scorn, forced her yoke upon him. Pope Innocent ordered the monks of Canterbury, without the king's permission, to elect for their primate, cardinal Langton, an Englishman by birth, but attached to the see of Rome.

John was greatly enraged when he heard of this infringement of his prerogative, and, venting his passion on the monks, sent two knights to expel them from their convent, and take possession of their revenues. Upon which, the pope, after many admonitions and threats, laid the kingdom under an interdict. By this sentence,

sentence, the nation was of a sudden deprived of all the exterior rites of religion. The altars were despoiled of their ornaments. The crosses, the reliques, the images, the statues of the saints, were laid on the ground; and, as if the air itself were profaned, and might pollute them by its contact, the priests carefully covered them up, even from their own approach and veneration. The use of bells entirely ceased in all the churches. The bells themselves were removed from the steeples, and laid on the ground with the other sacred utensils. Mass was celebrated with shut doors, and none but the priests were admitted to that holy institution. The dead were not interred in consecrated ground, but were thrown into ditches, or buried in common fields. The people were prohibited the use of meat, as in Lent, and debarred from all pleasures and amusements. They were forbidden even to salute each other, or so much as to shave their beards, and give any decent attention to their person and apparel. Every thing wore the appearance of the deepest distress, and of the most immediate apprehensions of divine vengeance and indignation.

John at last so much dreaded a French invasion, that he became a tributary to the pope, and laid his crown and regalia at the foot of the légat Pandolf, who kept them five days. The great barons resented his meanness, by taking arms; but he repeated his shameful submissions to the pope, and, after experiencing various fortunes of war, was at last brought so low, that the barons obliged him to sign A.D. 1216. the great deed, so well known by the name of *Magna Charta*. This business was transacted at Runnemedes, between Windsor and Stains, a spot ever since deservedly celebrated, and even hallowed by every zealous lover of liberty. Though John seemed to submit to all these regulations, he only dissimulated, till he could find a favourable opportunity for

for annulling all his concessions. Having called upon the pope for protection, the barons withdrew their allegiance from him, and transferred it to Lewis, the eldest son of Philip Augustus king of France. But the imprudent partiality of Lewis to his countrymen increased that jealousy, which it was so natural for the English to entertain in their present situation, and did great hurt to his cause. Many of the dissatisfied barons returned to the king's party; and John was preparing to make a last effort for his crown, when death put an end to his troubles and his crimes. His character is nothing but a complication of vices, equally mean and odious, ruinous to himself and destructive to his people.

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## CHAP. II.

### THE RELIGIOUS SPIRIT OF THIS PERIOD.

**A** BLIND obedience to the pope being as much a tenet of the Norman monks, as it had been of their predecessors the Anglo-Saxons, little change was made in the English church by the invasion in 1066. But the high-spirited foreigners, who replaced the churchmen, whom William drove from their benefices, soon quarreled among themselves about precedence; and it was not without great difficulty that the archbishop of York could be brought to yield obedience to Lanfranc of Canterbury, a zealous champion for the doctrine of transubstantiation, then little known in Great Britain.

The celibacy of the clergy, though enjoined by a thousand canons, met with great opposition. So difficult is it for the laws of men to overcome the laws of nature! By one of the canons of an English council, held at Winchester in 1076, the secular clergy who had

had wives, are allowed to keep them; which is a sufficient proof, that they formed a very powerful party. But those who had not wives, are forbidden to marry; and bishops are prohibited for the future to ordain any man who had a wife.

The crusades were the plague of Europe, and the scourge of Asia and Egypt, during this period. They ruined millions of families, and involved even the opulent in misery and want. To defray the enormous expence, the rich oppressed their vassals, and obliged them, amidst poverty and despair, to enlist in the crusade. The crusaders were invested by the pope with privileges, detrimental to the honours of the Deity, and the common rights of their neighbours. They were exempted from all prosecution for debt, during the time of their service. They paid no taxes to their sovereigns, nor any interest for what money they had borrowed. They had power to alienate their lands without the consent of their superiors. They had the full pardon of all their sins, past, present, or future, confirmed to them by the papal bulls; and they were assured that angels would carry their souls straight to heaven, if they met their death in the holy warfare. Europe by means of these expeditions, was drained of her rulers, her inhabitants, and wealth. Murders, rapes, and robberies, were every where committed with impunity, by these pretended armies of Christ; whilst Asia, and part of Europe, exhibited a scene of blood, and horrid devastation. Previous to their march, they disposed of their possessions, as at the point of death. To secure the protection of heaven, amidst their expected dangers, they bequeathed large donations to the monks and priests; and those who had law-suits with the clergy, gave them up in their favour.

A great number of the bishops and abbots, having accompanied the sacred troops as commanders, volunteers, or chaplains; the priests and monks, in their absence, abandoned

were introduced. The king himself, when he had let his lands at their full value, if another tenant came and offered more, gave them to him who offered most: and the great men were inflamed with such a *rage for money* that they did not care by what means it was acquired. The more they *talked* of justice, the more *injuriously* they acted. Those who were called justiciaries, were the fountains of all iniquity. Sheriffs and judges, whose peculiar duty it was to pronounce righteous judgments, were the most cruel of all tyrants, and greater plunderers than common thieves and robbers.\*

The prerogative of buying, in preference to others, all things necessary for their court and castles, commonly called *purveyance*, which belonged to the kings of England in this period, was a source of infinite vexations and injuries to the people. "The purveyors, who attended the court," says a respectable historian, "plundered and destroyed the whole country through which the king passed, without any controul. Some of them were so intoxicated with malice, that when they could not consume all the provisions in the houses which they invaded, they either sold or burnt them. After having washed their horses' feet with the liquors which they could not drink, they let them run out on the ground, or destroyed them in some other way."

The Saxon courts of justice were now suffered to decline. The county-court in particular, the dignity of which, for several years, survived the Norman invasion, fell by a stroke of despotism equally unjust and impolitic. For, about the year 1085, the bishops and abbots were prohibited from sitting there. On this, the lay-noblemen thought it beneath their dignity to attend, and that hall of justice, whose bench used to be crowded with prelates and peers, was gradually deserted. The

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\* Henry of Huntingdon.

The king's court, after the conquest was very splendid. Here sat the great officers of the crown, the justices, and the barons. In the monarch's absence the first justiciary always presided. The ceremonies were magnificent, and the habits brilliant and costly. Could pomp and parade have compensated for the want of equity, the Saxon juris-prudence might have been forgotten. Courts were held by the barons at the halls of their castles, where causes of a trivial nature were decided.

Fines were a considerable branch of the royal revenue. It appears from the ancient records of the exchequer, which are still extant, that the kings of England, at this period, like eastern princes, could not be approached without a present. Even justice itself was bought and sold. The supreme court of judicature was open to none, who did not bring presents to the king. The barons of the exchequer were not ashamed to insert, as an article in their records, that the county of Norfolk gave money that they might be *fairly dealt with*. Enormous sums were paid by females, either for leave to marry, or, more commonly, that they might not be forced to wed against their will. Even ladies of high rank were not exempted from such impositions; for we find Lucia, countess of Chester, paying "five marks of silver, that she might not, during next five years only, be compelled to marry." Ought not we then to think ourselves very happy, that we live in a civilized age, and under a limited monarchy?

Those who had not money to compound for murders, rapes, and other capital offences, were put to death; and the common place of execution was Smithfield.

But the rigour of the Anglo-Norman government,  
and

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\* Madex's account of the Exchequer.

and the licentious spirit of the nobles, proved ultimately favourable to general liberty. The oppressed people looked up to the king for protection; and circumstances enabled them to obtain it. The defect of the title of William II. and of Henry I. induced them to listen to the complaints of their English subjects, and to redress many of their grievances. The people, in some measure satisfied with the relief afforded them, became sensible of their consequence, and of their obligations to the crown; while the barons, finding themselves in quiet possession of their English estates, and apprehending no future disturbance from the natives, bore with impatience the burdens imposed upon them by William I. and to which they had readily submitted, in the hour of conquest and of danger. They saw the necessity of being more indulgent to their vassals, in order to obtain sufficient force, to enable them to retrench the prerogatives of the sovereign, and of connecting their cause with that of the people. Thus restored to a share in the legislature, the English commonalty felt more fully their own importance; and by a long and vigorous struggle, maintained with unexampled perseverance, they wrested from both the king and the nobles, all the other rights of a free people, of which their Anglo-Saxon ancestors had been robbed by the violent invasion, and cruel policy of William the Norman. To those rights they were entitled as men, by the great law of nature and reason, which declares the welfare of the whole community to be the end of all civil government; and as Englishmen, by inheritance.

## CHAP IV.

## LITERATURE.

**M**OST of the persons who attempted to revive literature, in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, had received instruction, and derived their principles of science, from the Greeks in the Eastern empire, or the Arabs in Spain and Africa. Both those people, acute and inquisitive to excess, corrupted the sciences which they cultivated. The Greeks rendered theology a system of speculative refinement, or endless controversy; and the Arabs communicated to philosophy a spirit of metaphysical and frivolous subtlety. Misled by these guides, the persons who first applied to science were involved in a maze of intricate inquiries. Instead of allowing their fancy to take its natural range, and produce such works of elegant invention, as might have improved the taste, and refined the sentiments of the age, they spent the whole force of their genius in speculations as unavailing as they were difficult.

Judicial astrology, in this period, was cultivated with more diligence than the most useful science. None, indeed, but astrologers, were honoured with the name of mathematicians. These pretended prognosticators were so much admired, that there was hardly a prince, or even nobleman, in Europe, who did not keep one or more of them in his family, to cast the horoscopes of his children, discover the success of his designs, and the public events that were to happen. The most famous of these astrologers published a kind of almanacs every year, with a variety of predictions concerning the weather, and other events. We have the following quotation from one of these almanacs, in the works of a learned writer of those times. "The astrologers call this year (1170) the wonderful



wonderful year, from the singular situation of the planets and constellations, and say, that in the course of it the councils of kings will be changed, wars will be frequent, and the world will be troubled with seditions; that learned men will be discouraged; but towards the end of the year they will be exalted."\* From this specimen we may perceive, that their predictions were couched in very general and artful terms. But by departing from this prudent conduct, and becoming a little too plain and positive, they brought a temporary disgrace on themselves and their art. For, in the beginning of the year 1186, all the great astrologers in the Christian world agreed in declaring, that from an extraordinary conjunction of the planets in the sign *Libra*, which had never happened before, and would never happen again, there would arise on Tuesday, the 16th of September at three o'clock in the morning, a most dreadful storm, which would sweep away not only single houses, but even great towns and cities; that this storm would be followed by a destructive pestilence, bloody wars, and all the plagues that had ever afflicted miserable mortals. This direful prediction spread terror and consternation over Europe, though it was contradicted by the Mahometan astrologers of Spain, who said, there would only be a few Shipwrecks, and a little failure in the vintage and harvest.

When the awful day drew near, Baldwin, archbishop of Canterbury, commanded a solemn fast of three days to be observed over all his province. But, to the utter confusion of the poor astrologers, the 16th of September was uncommonly serene and calm, the whole season remarkably mild and healthy, "and there were no storms all that year," says a pleasant writer, "but what the archbishop raised in the church by his own turbulence."

CHAP.

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\* John of Salisbury.

## CHAP. V.

## THE ARTS.

**T**HE conquest of England by the Normans very much contributed to the improvement of the art of agriculture in Britain. For, by that event, many thousands of husbandmen, from the fertile plains of Flanders, France, and Normandy, settled in this island, obtained estates or farms, and employed the same methods in the cultivation of them, which they had used in their native countries.

Architecture received as great improvements as agriculture. The twelfth century, indeed, may very properly be called the age of architecture, in which the rage for building was more violent in England than at any other time. The religious of every order, enjoying peace and prosperity, displayed the most astonishing ardour in every thing that might increase the splendor of divine worship. The ancient edifices, which had been raised in the days of Edgar, and Edward the Confessor, were demolished, and others of greater magnificence were erected.

As William was sensible, that the want of fortified places in England had greatly facilitated his conquest, and might facilitate his expulsion he built strong castles in all the towns, within the royal demesnes. All his earls, barons, and even prelates, imitated his example; and it was the first care of every one who received the grant of an estate from the crown, to build a castle upon it for his defence and residence. William Rufus was still a greater builder than his father. "This prince," says an early writer, "was much addicted to building royal castles and palaces, as the castles of Dover, Windsor, Norwich, Exeter, the palace of Westminster, and many others, testify; nor was there any king of England before him, who erect-

ed so many, and such noble edifices." The author of the Saxon Chronicle informs us, that in the year 1154 when king Stephen died, *the whole kingdom was covered with castles*. During his turbulent reign, eleven hundred and fifteen castles were raised with such expedition, that the poor people were quite worn out with hard labour.

Sculpture, under the extensive protection of superstition, flourished in the ages we now examine. The patron saint at least adorned every church, and in all the cathedrals images abounded. Painting was much used by the Anglo-Normans, in the decoration of churches, and the beautiful paintings in the cathedral of Canterbury, built by archbishop Lanfranc, are much celebrated. In the specimens of their miniature-paintings, which are still extant, we perceive not only the five primary colours, but also various combinations of them. The accurate connoisseur, however, will not allow that they were acquainted with the art of painting in oil. The illumination of books was a branch of miniature-painting followed by the monks, with great success. The materials, which these holy artists employed, were so durable, that their missals still dazzle our eyes with the brightness of their colour, and the splendor of their gilding. To adorn the bible and other books, copper-plates are now used, instead of this art.

Though poetry did not flourish during this period, it did not fail for want of patronage. The Saxon Matilda, queen to Henry Beauclerc, was a generous patroness of poets. Longchamp, the favorite minister of Richard Cœur de Lion, kept many bards in his pay, and even allured minstrels from France to enliven the streets of London by their songs. The works, however, which met with such encouragement from people of rank, were composed in the Norman, or French languages, the original English poetry being but little cultivated. It

It was dangerous in those times to write satirical verses against men in power. Henry I. condemned one Luke de Barra to have his eyes pulled out, for writing defamatory ballads against him; and when the earl of Flanders warmly interceded for the unhappy poet, the king replied, "This man, being a wit, a poet, and a minstrel, hath composed many indecent songs against me, and sung them openly, to the great entertainment and diversion of my enemies, he shall, therefore, be punished, to deter others from the like petulance." This cruel sentence was accordingly executed on the unhappy satirist, who died of the wounds he received in struggling with the executioner.

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## CHAP. VI.

### BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES.

**T**HE limits of this work will admit only of a brief account of the most eminent characters.

*Ingulphus*, abbot of Croyland, who was born in 1030, and died in 1091, wrote an excellent history of his own abbey, into which he has introduced much of the general history of the Kingdom, with a variety of curious anecdotes not to be found any where else. He was a great favorite of William the Conqueror, and obtained many privileges for his monastery, which he rebuilt.

*Lanfranc*, archbishop of Canterbury, who died in 1089, rebuilt the cathedral of Canterbury, and has the character of a great statesman, as well as of a learned prelate.

*Anselm*, the successor of Lanfranc, died in 1109. He was the first archbishop who restrained the English clergy from marrying, and was canonized in the reign of Henry VII. He excelled in the application of

metaphysics to theological subjects, which made him to be considered as one of the fathers of scholastic divinity.

*Eadmer*, the friend and contemporary of Anselm; and bishop of St. Andrew's, in Scotland, wrote the history of his own time in six books, from 1066 to 1122. This work is highly esteemed for its authenticity, and purity of style.

*Nicholas Brekespere*, the only Englishman who ever sat in St. Peter's chair, was born near St. Alban's, and in his youth performed the meanest offices about the abbey of that place, in which his father was a monk. Being refused the habit in that monastery, he went to Rome, and, after many vicissitudes of fortune, was introduced to pope Eugenius III. who was so pleased with him, that he made him a bishop. He succeeded to the popedom in 1154, and took the name of Adrian; on which Henry II. of England, sent the abbot of St. Alban's, with three bishops, to congratulate him, when his holiness granted him a bull for the conquest of Ireland. In 1155, the emperor Frederic held his stirrup while he mounted on horseback, when the pope conducted him to Rome, and consecrated him king of the Romans, in St. Peter's church. He died in 1159, leaving some letters and homilies, which are still extant.

*William of Malmesbury*, a monk and librarian of that abbey, and an excellent English historian to his own time, died in 1146. Few writers have been so highly praised as this modest friar, whose humble sentiments of his own merit deserve to be recorded. "I presume not," says he, "to expect the applause of my contemporaries; but I hope, that when favor and malevolence are no more, I shall receive from impartial posterity the character of an industrious though not an eloquent historiographer." In his history, he bears strong testimony to the existence of English wines. "This  
vale"

vale" (speaking of the vale of Gloucester, where he had chiefly spent his days) "is more abundant in vineyards than any other part of England. They produce great quantities of sweet grapes, the wine of which is hardly inferior in flavor to that of France."

In 1148, *Geoffrey de Magnaville* was made earl of Essex. Being afterwards ill-treated by king Stephen, he was driven to revolt, committed many acts of violence, and died in a state of excommunication. The templars, having wrapped his body in lead, *hung it on a tree* in the garden, in which situation it remained till he was absolved. He lies in the temple church in London; his statue is armed, and has a monk's cowl round the neck.

*Geoffrey of Monmouth*, bishop of St. Asaph, was a famous historian, in the reign of Henry I. Too much ridicule has been thrown on his history. It was not his own. The greatest part of it was translated from an Armorican manuscript. The whole is a romance; and, in those days, romance was a species of writing much honoured.

*Henry of Huntingdon*, a priest, poet, and historian, died in 1170. Mr. Warton has published a long letter of this author to a friend, on the contempt of the world, which contains many curious anecdotes of the kings, nobles, prelates, and other great men, who were his contemporaries.

*William Little*, better known by his Latin name *Gulielmus Neubrigienfis*, composed a history of England in five books, from the Norman conquest to 1197, which, for veracity, regularity of disposition, and purity of language, is one of the most valuable productions of this period.

*John of Salisbury*, who died in 1128, was a man of such learning, that when his adherence to the turbulent Becket forced him into exile, his merit gained him the see of Chartres in France. His work "*De nugis*"

*nugis curialium, et vestigiis philosophorum,\** is the most curious and valuable monument of the English literature of the 12th century.

*Giraldus Cambrensis*, who died in 1198, wrote "A History of the World," in which his information respecting ecclesiastical affairs is extremely valuable. In 1172, he was put in possession of several benefices, one of which he obtained by convicting the incumbent of keeping a concubine. Being vain and conceited, he expatiates on the exquisite delight which he gave at Oxford, by publicly reading his books. He also speaks of his Latin sermons, which excited the honest Welshmen to take the cross for the recovery of Jerusalem, though they did not understand a word of the language in which he had preached. He dwells with transport on his own princely lineage, which, he avers, made Henry II. so jealous of him, as to hinder his preferment.

This æra also boasted the Anacreon of England, *Walter Mapes*, the witty arch-deacon of Oxford, and chaplain to Henry II. He supported the cause of the married clergy against pope Innocent, in the following humorous verses:

"Priscian's head to break 'tis said  
It is your intention;  
Hic and hæc he bids us take  
To the priest's declension.

One of these you harshly seize  
And rob us of our treasure,  
*Hic alone* for *hæc* must moan,  
"Tis our pontiff's pleasure."

CHAP.

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\* Of the soppenies of courts, and the footsteps of philosophers.

## CHAP. VII.

## COMMERCE.

THE commerce of England, which had not been contemptible even during the ravages of her various spoilers, began in this period to increase with some rapidity. Besides London, whose opulent traders were styled *barons*, York, Bristol, Canterbury, Exeter, and many other towns, grew rich and respectable by their attention to trade and navigation. It is painful to relate that for some years after the Roman invasion, slaves continued to compose a part of the exports from England, notwithstanding the decree issued by the great council against this odious traffic. More laudable exports were horses, wool, leather, cloth, corn, lead and tin. The imports were gold, precious stones, silk, tapestry, furs, wines and spices. So important did the regulation of their *wines* appear to the Anglo-Normans, that a *jury* was appointed in every city to examine the merits and settle the value of this enticing commodity. Spices were favorite ingredients in their meat, drink, and medicines. The Sabæans imported to London their frankincense and other spices; and from the rich country about Babylon they brought oil of palms.

Little alteration was made by the Norman invaders in the *coins* used by the Anglo-Saxons. In the course of this period, the silver penny is sometimes called an esterling or sterling; and good money in general is sometimes called *esterling*, or *sterling* money. It is unnecessary to mention the various conjectures of antiquaries about the origin and meaning of this appellation. The most probable opinion seems to be that some artists from Germany, who were called Esterlings, from the situation of their country, had been employed in fabricating our money, which consisted chiefly



chiefly of silver pennies ; and that from them the penny was called an esterling, and our money *esterling* or *sterling* money.

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## CHAP. VIII.

### MANNERS.

**T**HE very singular spirit of chivalry which began to display itself about the beginning of this period, and was introduced into England by the Normans, gave a new turn to the education of the young nobility and gentry, in order to fit them for obtaining the honour of knighthood, which was then an object of ambition to the greatest princes.

Those noble youths, who were designed for the profession of arms and the honours of knighthood, were early taken out of the hands of the women, and placed in the family of some great prince or baron.

At their first entrance into this school of chivalry, they acted in the capacity of Pages or Valets. For those names, which are now appropriated to domestic servants, were then sometimes given to the sons and brothers of kings. In this station they were instructed in the laws of courtesy and politeness, and in the first rudiments of chivalry, and martial exercises, to fit them for shining in courts, at tournaments, and on the field of battle. Henry II. received this part of his education in the family of his uncle, Robert earl of Gloucester, who was one of the most accomplished knights of the age in which he flourished. After they had spent a competent time in the station of pages, they were advanced to the more honorable rank of esquires. Then they were admitted into more familiar intercourse with the knights and ladies of the court, and perfected in dancing, riding, hawking, hunting, tilting, and other accomplishments necessary to fit them  
for

for performing the offices of knighthood, to which they aspired. In a word the courts of kings, princes, and great barons, were a kind of colleges of chivalry, as the universities were of the arts and sciences; and the youth in both advanced through several degrees to the highest honours.

The exercises of the youth in these schools of chivalry are thus described by a celebrated writer in the reign of Henry II. "Every Sunday in Lent, immediately after divine service, crowds of noble and sprightly youths, mounted on war horses, admirably trained to perform all their turnings and evolutions, ride into the fields in distinct bands, armed with lances and shields, and exhibit representations of battles, and go through all their martial exercises. Many of the young nobility, who have not yet received the honour of knighthood, issue from the king's court, and from the houses of bishops, earls, and barons, to make trial of their courage, strength, and skill in arms. The hope of victory rouses the spirits of these noble youths; their fiery horses neigh and prance, and champ their foaming bits. At length the signal is given, and the sports begin. The youths, divided into opposite bands, encounter one another. In one place some fly, and others pursue, without being able to overtake them. In another place, one of the bands overtakes and overturns the other."

The martial sports, commonly called *tournaments*, were very favorite diversions in those ages. When a prince had resolved to hold a tournament, he sent heralds to the neighbouring courts and countries to publish his design, and to invite all brave and loyal knights to honour the intended solemnity with their presence. This invitation was accepted with the greatest joy, and a vast number of ladies and gentlemen commonly assembled. All the knights, who proposed to enter the lists, hung up their shields in the cloister of a neighbouring

brought from Constantinople, Babylon, Alexandria, Palestine, Syria, and Phœnicia.\* These delicacies, we may presume, were very expensive; for Thomas à Becket gave five pounds, equivalent to seventy-five pounds at present, for one dish of eels. Great men had some kinds of provisions at their tables, which are not now to be found in Britain. When Henry II. entertained his own court, the great officers of his army, with all the kings and great men of Ireland, in A. D. 1171. Dublin, at the festival of Christmas, the Irish princes and chieftains were quite astonished at the variety of provisions which they beheld, and were not easily prevailed upon to eat the flesh of cranes, a kind of food to which they had not been accustomed. In the remaining monuments of those ages, we meet with the names of several dishes, as *dellegrout*, *maupigyrnun*, and *karumpie*, the composition of which is now unknown.

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## CHAP. IX.

### INCIDENTS, AND CURIOUS PARTICULARS.

**I**N 1068, the English were required to put out their fires and candles, at eight in the evening, on the ringing of the curfew bell. They were also obliged to deliver up their arms.

In 1091, a storm at South West blew down 600 houses, and many churches in London. Beams from the roof of Marybone church were whirled away by the wind with such force, that they sunk down twenty feet in the street. They could not be dug out, but were sawed off even with the ground. In the same year Ingulphus, abbot of Croyland, laments the destruction

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\* John of Salisbury.

truction of his monastery by fire, and particularly the loss of a precious astronomical instrument, which he calls a *Nadir*. "It was a beautiful table," says he, "wherein Saturn was of copper, Jupiter of gold, Mars of iron, and the Sun of silver. The eyes were charmed, and the mind instructed by beholding the colure-circles, the Zodiac, and all its signs, formed with wonderful art, of metals and precious stones." Was not this an imperfect orrery?

In 1092, a dreadful conflagration destroyed the greatest part of London.

In 1100, an inundation of the sea happened, which overflowed the lands of Godwin, earl of Kent, to this day called *Godwin Sands*. Of these shoals, the late Mr. Smeaton, civil engineer, gives the following account. "Upon our journey to Ramsgate, having visited Godwin's sands, in order to examine their nature, we found that, though like quicksand, they were clean and unconnected, yet they lay so close that it was difficult to work a pointed iron bar into them, more than to the depth of 6 or 7 feet."

In 1103, great numbers of Flemings leaving their country, on account of floods, repaired to the eastern coasts of England, and were troublesome to the inhabitants. Henry removed them to Pembroke-shire, where their descendants still retain a distinction in language from the aboriginal Welch.

In 1110, Henry matched one of his illegitimate sons to the rich heiress of Fitz-Aymon. The lady had a poetical turn; and when the king told her that his son's name was Robert, she thus addressed him:

"It were to me a great shame

"To have a lord without twa name."

On which Henry conferred on him the name of Fitz-Roy. About this period, surnames were much used by people of rank in England.

In 1114, the Thames was so ill supplied with water,  
that

that people walked across between the bridge and tower of London, the water only reaching up to their knees.

In 1136, there was a great fire in London, which consumed a considerable part of the city, as well as the bridge, then built of wood.

In 1174, Henry II. called together the nobility of Languedoc, in order to mediate a peace between the count of Thoulouse and the king of Arragon. As Henry, however, did not attend, the nobles had nothing to do but to emulate each other in wild magnificence, and barbarity. The following instances, bordering upon insanity, shew the spirit of those early ages. The countess of Urgel sent to the meeting a diadem worth 2000 pounds, to be placed on the head of a wretched buffoon. The count of Thoulouse sent a diadem of 4000 pounds to a favorite knight, who distributed that sum among the poorer knights. Another nobleman gave an immense dinner, cooked by the flame of wax-tapers. But the singular magnificence of count Bertrand Rimbault attracted the loudest applause. For he set the peasants around Beaucaire to plough up the soil, in which he sowed *small pieces of money*, to the amount of fifteen hundred English guineas. Piqued at this princely extravagance, and determined to surpass his neighbours in savage brutality, if he could not in prodigality, lord Raymond, having ordered thirty of his most beautiful and valuable horses to be tied to stakes and surrounded with dry wood, heroically lighted the piles, and consumed his favorites alive!

In 1209, an unfortunate circumstance occurred, which threatened the university of Oxford with destruction. A woman having been accidentally killed by a scholar, the townsmen seized three innocent students, and executed them without due enquiry. On this, the professors and scholars abandoned Oxford, and retired to Cambridge and Reading. In 1214, they were all re-instated by a bull from Rome.

BOOK

## BOOK IV.

## CHAP I.

MILITARY HISTORY FROM THE DEATH OF KING JOHN, TO THE ACCESSION OF HENRY IV. IN 1399.

**E**NGLAND was in a deplorable situation when the crown devolved upon Henry III. who was only nine years old. The earl of Pembroke being chosen his guardian, the French were driven out of the kingdom, and their king renounced all claims to English territory. Henry, having married the daughter of the earl of Provence, was persuaded to violate the Great Charter. An association of the barons was immediately formed against him, and a civil war broke out, when he was abandoned by all but his Gascons and foreign mercenaries. The famous Stephen Montfort, earl of Leicester, who had married his sister, being appointed general of the association, the king and his two sons were defeated and taken prisoners, at the battle of Lewes. Prince Edward, however, obtained his liberty, and assembling a considerable number of his father's subjects, put the rebels to flight, and killed Montfort. Henry died in 1272, in the 65th year of his age, and the 56th of his inglorious reign. But to the struggles at that time, the people, in great measure, owe the liberties of the present day.

Edward I. began his reign by confirming the Great charter, and making strict enquiry into the affairs of the state. He annexed the principality of Wales to his crown, and was the first who gave the title of prince of Wales to his eldest son. He then invaded Scotland, when John Baliol, the king, renewed his oath of fidelity,

lity, and put him in possession of the whole kingdom. But while Edward was endeavouring to recover some dominions which he had lost in France, the brave William Wallace rose up in defence of his country, and, having dispossessed the English of all the fortified places, was declared regent. Upon this Edward returned from France, advanced into Scotland at the head of a powerful army, and defeated Wallace, who, several years after, was betrayed into the hands of the English, and sent to London, where that great hero suffered the death of a traitor. Edward died in 1307, in the 68th year of his age, and the 35th of his reign, having ordered his heart to be sent to the Holy Land.

His son Edward II. who married Isabella, daughter to the French king, mounted the throne with great advantages, which he soon forfeited by his own imprudence.

A. D. 1314. The battle of Bannockburn between him and Robert Bruce, established the latter on the throne of Scotland. He raised to the summit of power, the two Spencers, father and son, whom the parliament banished. The queen, an ambitious and worthless woman, who persuaded her husband to recal the Spencers, at last became enamoured with Mortimer, earl of March. A breach between her and the Spencers soon followed, and, going over to France with her lover, she found means to form such a party in England, that, on her return with some French troops, she put the eldest Spencer to an ignominious death, made her husband prisoner, and forced him to abdicate his crown in favour of his son Edward III. then fifteen years of age. Nothing was now wanting to complete her guilt but the death of Edward

A. D. 1327. II. who was barbarously murdered in Berkley-castle by ruffians, supposed to be employed by her and her paramour.

During the minority of Edward III. little domestic tranquillity was to be expected. When he assumed the

reins of government, Mortimer was hanged at Tyburn, and the queen herself was confined for life. It was not long before he quarrelled with David, king of Scotland, though he had married his sister. David was driven to France by Edward Baliol, who did homage to Edward for Scotland.

In 1337, Charles the Fair, king of France, dying without male issue, Philip of Valois, his cousin, in consequence of the Salic law, which is supposed to exclude females, succeeded to the throne. He was opposed, however, by Edward, as being the son of Isabella, sister to the deceased king, and first in the female succession. The former was preferred; but the case being doubtful, Edward pursued his claim, and invaded France with a powerful army. The war, on the part of Edward, was a continued scene of success and victory. In 1340, he took the title of king of France, which he used in all public acts, and quartered the arms of France with his own, adding this motto, *Dieu et mon droit*, "God and my right."

At Cressy, in 1346, the French army, consisting of one hundred and twenty thousand men, was defeated by 30,000 English, chiefly by the valour of the prince of Wales, commonly called the *Black Prince* from the colour of his armour. Forty thousand of the French were slain, among whom were many of the principal nobility, twelve hundred knights, and fourteen hundred gentlemen; while the English lost only three knights, one esquire, and fifty private men. On his return to the camp, Edward flew into the arms of the prince of Wales, who had distinguished himself in a remarkable manner. "My brave son!" cried he, "persevere in your honourable course. You are my son! for valiantly have you acquitted yourself to day. You have shewn yourself worthy of empire."

A weak mind is elated with the smallest success: a great spirit is little affected by any turn of fortune.  
Edward,



Edward, instead of expecting that the victory at Cressy would be immediately followed by the total subjection of the disputed kingdom, seemed rather to moderate his views. He prudently limited his ambition to the conquest of Calais, by which he hoped to secure an easy entrance into France.

The battle of Poitiers was fought in 1356, between the prince of Wales and John of France, in which the French were totally defeated, and their king taken prisoner. The captive king, after having received the most courteous and generous treatment from his conqueror, was conducted by him to England, when he entered London, dressed in royal apparel, and mounted on a beautiful steed, whilst the prince, clad in meaner attire, with a humility that did him honour, rode by his side on a black palfrey.

Edward, having left his queen Philippa, daughter to the earl of Hainault, regent of England, she had the good fortune to take prisoner, David, king of Scotland, who had invaded England, about six weeks after the battle of Cressy. Thus two crowned heads were captives in London at the same time. Both kings were afterwards ransomed; but John returned to England, and died at the palace of the Savoy. After the battle of Bretigni, into which Edward was frightened by a dreadful storm, his popularity declined. This was chiefly occasioned by his extravagant attachment to Alice Pierce, a young lady of wit and beauty, whose influence over him had given such general disgust, as to become the object of a parliamentary remonstrance. Meanwhile the prince of Wales died, leaving behind him a character adorned with every eminent virtue, and which would throw lustre on the most shining period of ancient or modern history. The king did not long survive this melancholy incident. He died at Richmond in Surry, **A. D. 1377.** in the sixty-fifth year of his age, and the  
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the fifty-first of his reign ; one of the longest and most glorious in the English annals. His latter days were indeed somewhat obscured, by the infirmities and follies of old age ; but he was no sooner dead, than the people of England were sensible of their irreparable loss, and posterity considers him as the greatest and most accomplished prince of his time.

The domestic government of Edward was even more worthy of admiration than his foreign victories. By the prudence and vigour of his administration, England enjoyed a longer term of interior peace and tranquillity than it had been blest with in any former period, or than it experienced for many ages after. He gained the affections of the great, yet curbed their licentiousness. His affable and obliging behaviour, his munificence and generosity, made them successful in most military enterprises ; and their unquiet spirits, directed against a public enemy, had no leisure to breed those private feuds, to which they were naturally so much disposed. This internal tranquillity was the chief benefit that England derived from Edward's continental expedition ; and the miseries of the reign of his successor made the nation fully sensible of the value of the blessing. Edward had a numerous issue by his queen, Philippa, of Hainault ; viz. Edward, prince of Wales, Lionel, duke of Clarence, John of Gaunt, so called from the place of his birth, created duke of Lancaster ; Edmund, earl of Cambridge, afterwards duke of York ; Thomas, earl of Buckingham, afterwards duke of Gloucester ; and several princesses.

Richard II. son of the Black Prince, succeeded to the throne of his grandfather, at the age of eleven years. Though a council of nine persons was chosen to direct the public business, during the king's minority, the government of the kingdom was secretly directed by his three uncles, the dukes of Lancaster, York, and

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Gloucester.

Gloucester; especially by the former, who was in reality the regent.

War had been carried on between France and England, after the death of Edward the III. but in so languid a manner as served only to exhaust the finances of both kingdoms. In order to repair the expences of these fruitless armaments, the English parliaments found it necessary to impose a poll-tax of three groats a-head, on every person, male and female, above fifteen years of age. The inequality and injustice of this tax was obvious to the meanest capacity, while the vigorous manner in which it was levied, made it yet more grievous. The discontents of the populace being thus prepared, the following incident kindled them into a flame. The tax-gatherers came to a blacksmith's shop, in the village of Eilsex, and demanded payment for his daughter, whom he asserted to be below the age assigned by the statute. One of the fellows, laying hold of the maiden, and offering to produce a very indecent proof of the contrary, the father knocked out the ruffian's brains with his hammer. The by-standers applauded the action, and exclaiming that it was full time for the people to take vengeance on their tyrants, immediately flew to arms. The flame in an instant spread over that and the neighbouring counties, and the populace, headed by the most audacious and criminal of their associates, who assumed the feigned names of Wat Tyler, Jack Straw, and Hob Carter, committed the most outrageous violence on such of the nobility and gentry as fell into their hands.

At length, near an hundred thousand of them assembled on blackheath under their leaders, Tyler and Straw; from whence they made their way to London, where they continued their outrages. The king, passing along Smithfield, very slenderly guarded, met with Wat Tyler at the head of a large body of the rioters, and entered into a conference with him. Tyler, hav-  
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ing ordered his companions to retire till he should give them the signal, ventured into the midst of the royal retinue; where he behaved himself in such a manner, that Walworth, the mayor of London, not able to bear his insolence, struck him a violent blow, which brought him to the ground, and he was instantly dispatched by the rest of the king's attendants. The mutineers, seeing their leader fall, prepared themselves for revenge; and the king, with his whole company, had undoubtedly perished on the spot, had it not been for an extraordinary presence of mind which Richard discovered on this occasion. Accosting the enraged multitude, with an affable and intrepid countenance, he asked them, what was the meaning of their disorder? "Are you angry, my good people," added he, "that you have lost your leader? I, your king, will be your leader." The populace, overawed by his presence, implicitly followed him into the fields, and a body of well armed veterans having been secretly drawn together, they peaceably separated, upon his granting them a charter of redress for their grievances, which, however, was soon after disannulled in parliament.

Had Richard been a prince of real abilities, he might now have established the tranquillity of his dominions on a sure foundation; but he delivered himself up to worthless favorites, particularly Robert de Vere, earl of Oxford, a young man of noble family, but of dissolute manners, whom he created marquis of Dublin, and duke of Ireland. This soon produced an animosity between the minion and his creatures on the one hand, and the princes of the blood and chief nobility on the other, and brought on a continual scene of dissension between the king and his people, which ended in the exile of the earl. Michael de la Pole, the son of an eminent merchant, whom he created earl of Suffolk, and appointed his chancellor, had likewise acquired,

quired, in an eminent degree, the friendship of Richard.

The duke of Gloucester perceiving the mischiefs, which the dissolute conduct of his nephew might occasion, formed a party against him, when Richard ordered the duke to be seized and conveyed to Calais, where he was privately strangled.

He was now upon the point of becoming more despotic, than any king of England had ever been, when he lost his crown and life by a sudden catastrophe. A quarrel happened between the earl of Derby, son of John of Gaunt, lately created duke of Hereford, and the duke of Norfolk. Richard banished them both; with particular marks of injustice to the former, who soon became duke of Lancaster, by his father's death. The King going over to quell an insurrection in Ireland, the wishes of the nation were gratified by the appearance of his exiled cousin, who landed from France at Ravenspur, in Yorkshire, and was soon at the head of 60,000 men. Richard hurried back to England, where his troops refusing to fight, and his subjects, whom he had affected to despise, generally deserting him, he was made prisoner with no more than twenty attendants. Being conducted to London, he was deposed in full parliament, upon a formal charge of tyranny and misconduct, when the duke of Lancaster was proclaimed king, under the name of Henry IV. With regard to Richard, it was long the prevailing opinion, that Sir Piers Exton, and others of his guards, fell upon him in the castle of Pomfret, where he was confined, and dispatched him with halberts. But it is more probable that he was starved to death in prison, in A. D. 1399. the 34th year of his age, and the 23rd of his reign, having no issue by either of his marriages. This prince lived in a more magnificent manner than, perhaps, any of his predecessors or successors. His household consisted of 10,000 persons. He had 300 in his kitchen, and all the other offices were furnished in proportion.

CHAP.

## CHAP. II.

## RELIGION AND ECCLESIASTICAL AFFAIRS.

**A**S the power of the pope, and of the church, appears to have been at its greatest height in England, during this period, it may not be improper to take a short view of this prodigious fabric of ecclesiastical tyranny, and of the deplorable oppressions under which our ancestors groaned in this superstitious age. Some of those oppressions are well expressed in a letter of complaint written to the pope by the king, prelates, and barons of England, in 1246. In that letter they complain, that the pope, not content with the annual payment of Peter-pence, exacted from the clergy great contributions, without the king's consent, and against the customs, rights, and liberties of the realm of England; that the patrons of churches could not present fit persons to the vacant livings, as the pope, generally conferred them on Italians, who understood not the English language, and carried out of the kingdom the money arising from their benefices; that the pope oppressed the churches, by exacting pensions from them; that in churches filled by Italians, there were neither alms nor hospitality; and that the care of souls was entirely neglected. To these were added many other grievances no less oppressive and intolerable. His holiness filled the highest dignities of the church by his own power, making the archbishops and others pay exorbitant sums for their preferments. He brought all causes of any importance to Rome, and kept the parties long waiting for their decision, at great expence. Great sums were annually sent to Rome, for pardons, indulgences, and dispensations. It is therefore surprising, that the kingdom was not drained of all its wealth.

The insatiable avarice, and insupportable tyranny of the

the court of Rome, gave such universal disgust, in the 14th Century, that a bold attack made on the authority of that court, and the doctrines of that church, was, at first, more successful than could have been expected in those dark ages. Dr. John Wickliffe, a secular priest, educated at Oxford, began in the latter end of the reign of Edward III. to spread the doctrines of reformation by his discourses, sermons and writings, when many people of all ranks became his disciples. He was a man of parts, learning and piety; and has the honour of being the first person in Europe, who publicly called in question those doctrines, which had passed for certain during so many ages. The doctrines of Wickliffe, being nearly the same with those propagated by the reformers in the 16th century, gave great alarm to the clergy, and a bull was issued by the pope for taking him into custody, and examining into the scope of his opinions. Courteney bishop of London cited him before his tribunal; but the reformer had now acquired powerful protectors, who screened him from the ecclesiastical jurisdiction. The duke of Lancaster, who then governed the kingdom, and lord Percy, the marshal, having encouraged the principles of Wickliffe, made no scruple to appear openly in court with him, in order to give him countenance upon his trial. They even insisted that Wickliffe should sit in the bishop's presence, while his principles were examined. Courteney exclaimed against the insult. The Londoners, thinking their prelate affronted, attacked the duke and marshal, who with some difficulty escaped from their hands. The populace, soon after, broke into the houses of both these noblemen, threatened their persons, and plundered their goods, while the bishop of London had the merit of appeasing their fury and resentment.

The duke of Lancaster, however, still continued his protection to Wickliffe, during the minority of Richard, and the principles of that reformer were so much propagated,

propagated, that, when the pope sent to Oxford a new bull against these doctrines, the university deliberated for some time whether they should receive it; and they never took any vigorous measures in consequence of the papal orders. Even the populace of London were, at last, brought to entertain favorable sentiments of this reformer. When he was cited before a synod at Lambeth, they forced their way into the assembly, and so overawed the prelates, who found both the people and the court against them, that they dismissed him without any farther censure.

A. D. 1385. Wickliffe died of a palsy, at his rectory of Lutterworth, in Leicestershire, when the clergy, mortified that he should have escaped their vengeance, took care, besides assuring the people of his eternal damnation, to represent his last distemper as a visible judgment of heaven upon him, for his multiplied heresies and impieties.

The proselytes, however, of Wickliffe's opinions still increased in England, and were distinguished by the name of Wickliffites or Lollards. His principles were carried over to Bohemia by some youth of that nation, who studied at Oxford. But though many were strongly disposed to receive them, affairs were not yet fully ripe for this great revolution, wisely reserved for a more free and enquiring age, which abolished Romish superstition in this and many other kingdoms of Europe.

### CHAP. III.

#### GOVERNMENT AND LAWS.

**U**NDER the long reign of Henry the third, the difference which arose between the king and the nobles, rendered England a scene of confusion. The people,



people, however, obtained a confirmation of the great charter with the addition of new privileges. But the liberty of the subject made the greatest progress during the reign of Edward the first; a prince, who, from his numerous and prudent laws, has been denominated the English Justinian. During the first thirteen years of this prince's reign, the English laws received more improvement than in all the ages since his time. But what renders this æra particularly interesting is, that it affords the first instance of the admission of the deputies of towns and boroughs into parliament. In order to raise subsidies to support the wars in which he was engaged, he found himself obliged to employ a new method, and to endeavour to obtain, by the consent of the people, what his predecessors had hitherto expected from their own power. The sheriffs were ordered to invite the towns and boroughs of the different counties to send deputies to parliament; and it is from this æra that we are to date the origin of the house of commons. King Edward confirmed the great charter eleven times in the course of his reign. And, at length, he converted into an established law, a privilege of which the English had hitherto only a precarious enjoyment, by decreeing that no tax should be laid, nor impost levied, without the joint consent of the lords and commons. This most important statute, in conjunction with Magna Charta, forms the basis of the English constitution. Under Edward the second, the commons began to annex petitions to the bills by which they granted subsidies. This was the dawn of their legislative authority. Under Edward the third, they declared they would not, in future, acknowledge any law to which they had not expressly assented. Soon after this, they exerted a privilege in which consists, at this time, one of the great balances of the constitution; they impeached, and procured to be condemned, some of the chief ministers of state.

During

During the whole of this period, however, the government, was at best only a barbarous monarchy, not regulated by any fixed maxims, or bounded by any certain undisputed rights, which in practice were regularly observed. The king conducted himself by one set of principles, the barons by another, the commons by a third, and the clergy by a fourth. All these systems of government were opposite and incompatible. Each of them prevailed in its turn, as incidents were favourable to it. A great prince rendered the monarchical power predominant. The weakness of a king gave reins to the aristocracy. A superstitious age saw the clergy triumphant. The people, for whom chiefly *government* was instituted, and who chiefly *deserve consideration*, were the weakest of the whole. But though they sunk under the violence of tempests, they silently reared their head in more peaceable times; and while the storm was brewing, were courted by all sides, and thus received still some accession to their privileges, or at worst some confirmation of them.

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## CHAP. IV.

### LITERATURE.

THE supreme authority which Aristotle obtained in the schools of theology, as well as of philosophy, during this period, had a considerable influence both on learning and religion. The name and some parts of the writings of Aristotle were known in England, and other countries of Europe, long before this time. But he did not obtain that dictatorial authority among learned men, and in the most famous seats of learning, which he so long maintained, till the middle of the 13th century. About that time he began to be called *the philosopher*, by way of eminence. "He is preferred,"

says Roger Bacon, "before all other philosophers, in the opinion of all men of learning; whatever he has affirmed is received by them as true and sound philosophy; and, in a word, he has the same authority in philosophy that the apostle Paul has in divinity." To such an extravagant height was this veneration for Aristotle carried, before the middle of the 14th century, in some of the most famous universities, particularly in that of Paris, that students were obliged to take a *solemn oath* to defend his opinions. This blind submission could not but obstruct the progress of real knowledge, as very few of his admirers were capable of reading his works in their original language, but became acquainted with them only in false translations.

Divinity now soared above the scriptures. The schoolmen valued themselves on making improvements in theology, without recourse to either Testament; and those unfashionable sages, who still studied the sacred writings, were styled in derision *Bible-doctors*. They were considered as men of little penetration or acuteness, had but few scholars, and were not allowed an apartment, nor a servant to attend them, nor even a stated hour for reading their lectures, in any of the famous universities of Europe.

Astronomy and optics were known to the illustrious Roger Bacon, but to few others. The same great man seems also to have monopolized the knowledge of mechanics and chemistry.

We may judge of the ignorance of this age in geography, from the following story. Pope Clement IV. having, in 1344, created Lewis of Spain, prince of the *Fortunate Islands*, meaning the Canaries, then newly discovered, the English ambassador at Rome, and his retinue, were seized with an alarm that Lewis had been created king of England. They accordingly hurried home, in order to convey this important intelligence.

Such

Such, however, was the ardour for study at this time, that in the university of Oxford alone there were thirty thousand students. What then was the occupation of all these young men? To learn bad Latin, and worse logic. They disputed without end, and without meaning, perplexing the plainest truths, and giving plausible colours to the greatest absurdities. A logical disputant of this period was not ashamed to argue, with as much earnestness as if his life depended on the issue of the debate, "*that two contradictory propositions might each be true.*" These frivolous disputes were conducted with so much eagerness, that from angry words the disputants sometimes proceeded to blows, and raised dangerous tumults in the seats of learning.

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## CHAP. V.

### THE ARTS.

**I**N the period we are now examining, very little progress was made in agriculture. The country was almost constantly involved in war, which diverted the attention of the people, and particularly of the nobility, from the improvement of their lands. The wretched tenure, likewise, by which the inferior farmers held their possessions, was an effectual bar to every amendment of soil. Gardening, under the immediate protection of the great, had better success. Every large castle or monastery had its garden, orchard, and frequently its vineyard; so that the English had a considerable quantity of wine, of their own manufacture, not much inferior to foreign wine.

With regard to architecture, many of the most admired cathedrals in England, viz. those of York, Salisbury, and Winchester, owe their existence to this period.

period, which is generally allowed to have produced the truest and fairest models of what is called the "*lighter gothic style of building*." The steeples with spires and pinnacles, the pillars formed of an assemblage of columns, the lofty windows sometimes towering to a point, sometimes much enlarged, divided into several lights by stone mullions, and always filled with glass stained with lively colours, to represent the stories of saints and martyrs, these beautiful peculiarities stamp the sacred edifices of the 13th and 14th centuries.

This rapid progress in architectural elegance was greatly assisted by a band of ingenious workmen of various countries, who forming themselves into societies, under the title of "*Free Masons*," offered their services to opulent princes, and were much attached to the bountiful Henry, and to his magnanimous successor.

The ardour of our English reformers, and the party-zeal of civil wars, have left us few perfect memorials of the state of sculpture, in the early stages. Father Montfaucon says that the art was greatly improved during the 13th century, and Matthew Paris mentions a monk, his contemporary, as an admirable statuary.

So great and general was the taste for paintings in this period, that not only the apartments of the great, but those of private persons, were ornamented with historical pictures. When Chaucer awoke from his celebrated poetical dream, the gay objects, which his fancy had presented, were vanished, and he saw nothing,

"Save on the wal's old pourtrayture

"Of horsmen, hauks, and houndis

"And hart dire, al ful of woundis."

This, we may believe, is a real description of his own bed-chamber.

Though the poets of this period were as much admired by their contemporaries, as those who flourished in better times, their works are now generally neglected.

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This is, perhaps, as much owing to the antiques style in which they wrote, and the subjects of which they treated, as to the mediocrity of their talents. The English language, though nervous, was then harsh, frowned on by the court, despised by the gentry, and disguised by an unintelligible mode of spelling.

Several other musical instruments, besides the *harp*, were now used by the minstrels. In the band of Edward III. we find five trumpeters, a cyteler, five pipers, a fidler, a tabret, a mabrer, two clarions, and three hautboys.

## CHAP. VI.

### BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES.

**MATTHEW Paris**, a benedictine monk in the monastery of St. Alban's, who flourished in the 13th century, was an excellent poet, orator, and historian. He lived on a very friendly and familiar footing with Henry III. being not only employed in his service, but entrusted with his secrets, and invited to his table. He is chiefly known at this time, by an universal history from the creation of the world to the year of his death, in 1259.

**Roger Bacon**, a learned monk of the Franciscan order, was descended of an ancient family, and born near Ilchester, in Somersetshire, in 1214. He applied himself with astonishing ardour to the acquisition of knowledge, both at Oxford and Paris; and his attainments were so uncommon, that the populace looked upon him as a magician. By the contrivance of his own fraternity, who were jealous of his superior abilities, he was prohibited from reading lectures to the students, and afterwards imprisoned. His fame, however, reached the ears of pope Clement IV. who requested he

his chaplain, and sent him on several embassies. He loved learning so much, that even after he was arch-deacon of Aberdeen, he obtained a licence from Edward III. to study at Oxford. He wrote the life and exploits of Robert Bruce in rhyme, and in language more like our modern English than that of Chaucer. He died in 1378. The following stanza will give some idea of his style and poetical talents.

"This was in midst of month of May,

"When birdis sing on ilka spray

"Melland\* their notes with seemly soun

"For softness of the sweet seasoun."

About this time, *John Brompton*, abbot of Jorvall in Yorkthire, wrote his history of England. His collection of the Saxon laws is valuable. He was wonderfully credulous, but not the less entertaining, and frequently makes his readers smile at the wild tales which he relates, with apparent simplicity, as solemn truths.

*Geoffrey Chaucer*, the father of English poetry, was born in London in 1328, and educated at both universities. After visiting several foreign countries for his improvement, he became a student of law in the Middle Temple. But this study not being agreeable to his taste, he resolved to try his fortune at court, for which he was well qualified, being remarkably handsome in his person, elegant in his manners, an universal scholar, and an admired poet. He accordingly obtained the honourable place of page to Edward III. in 1359, when that illustrious prince was in the summit of his prosperity, and the English court in its highest splendor, adorned by the captive kings of France and Scotland. In this station he rendered himself so agreeable to his royal master, that he obtained many substantial marks of his favour, and enjoyed an income of no less than 1000l. a year, equivalent to 12000l. at present

present. In this flourishing state of his affairs, he married Philippa Rouët, sister to lady Swynton, afterwards the wife of John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, the king's third son. This nobleman having espoused the cause of Wickliffe from political views, Chaucer engaged with warmth, and from principle, in the same cause. In order to avoid the resentment of the clergy, he was obliged to go abroad, where he spent his whole estate in supporting himself and his fellow-exiles. He then returned privately into England, but was taken and committed to prison, from whence he was not released, till he had disclosed the secrets of his party. On this he retired to Woodstock, where he corrected his works. Here he published his admirable Treatise on the Astrolabe. By the exertions of his friends, who recovered their influence at court, he obtained several grants from the crown, which enabled him to spend the last years of his life in ease and plenty. He died in 1400, and was buried in Westminster Abbey, leaving two sons, one of whom was speaker of the house of commons, and ambassador to France. Of his poems, the Canterbury Tales are by far the best. There have been several editions of his works.

*Sir John Gower*, an eminent lawyer and poet, the contemporary and intimate friend of Chaucer, whom he succeeded in the laurel, was descended from an ancient family, and born in 1320. In his character as a lawyer he made so considerable a figure, that he was appointed chief justice of the Common Pleas. His principal production as a poet is *Confessio Amantis*, first printed by Caxton. He appears to have been fond of writing, and laments in a very pathetic strain, that by the failure of his sight, he was constrained to lay aside his pen. He died in 1402. Some of his short poems are inserted in the works of Chaucer.



## CHAP. VII.

MANUFACTURES, COMMERCE, AND INTERNAL  
POLICE.

**T**HE chief manufacture of England, in the æra of which we now treat, was that of wool. This she owed to the fostering hand of Edward III. who gave encouragement to foreign weavers, and enacted a law, which prohibited every one from wearing any cloth but of English fabric. The manufactures of leather and lead were also very considerable.

The greatest part of our domestic trade was still transacted in fairs, of which some were of long duration, frequented by a great number of people from different countries, and stored with commodities of all kinds. The fair of St. Giles's hill, near Winchester, continued sixteen days, during which time all trade was prohibited in Winchester, Southampton, and every place within seven miles of the fair, which very much resembled a great city, inhabited by foreign and domestic traders, who exposed their various commodities to sale. We are assured by a contemporary writer of undoubted credit, that male and female slaves were publicly sold in the fairs of England, near the conclusion of the 14th century.

In the beginning of the reign of Richard II. the parliament complained of the decay of foreign commerce, during the preceding reign, and asserted, that one sea-port formerly contained more vessels than were then to be found in the whole kingdom. This calamity they ascribed to the arbitrary seizure of ships by Edward, for the service of his frequent expeditions.

With regard to coin, the third Edward, in 1344, struck florins of gold, which were ordered to pass for six shillings, and the halves and quarters in proportion. Finding, however, that he had rated these pieces too  
high

high, he coined the gold noble of 6s. 8d. and recalled the florins to his treasury.

The police of the kingdom was certainly much improved during this period, particularly in the renowned Edward's time. Yet there were several faults in the constitution, the bad consequences of which, all the power and vigilance of the king could never prevent. The barons, by their confederacies with those of their own order, and by supporting their retainers in every iniquity, were the chief abettors of robbers, murderers, and ruffians of all kinds; and no law could be executed against those criminals. The nobility were brought to give their promise in parliament, that they would not countenance any felon or breaker of the law; yet this engagement, which we may wonder to see exacted from men of their rank, was never regarded by them. The commons made continual complaints of the multitude of robberies, murders, rapes, and other disorders, in every part of the kingdom, which they always ascribed to the protection that the criminals received from the great. The king of Cyprus, who paid a visit to England in the reign of Edward III. was robbed and stripped on the highway with his whole retinue. The king himself contributed to this dissolution of law, by his facility in granting pardons to felons from the solicitation of courtiers. Laws were made to prevent this prerogative, and remonstrances of the commons were presented against the abuse of it. But the gratifying of a powerful noblemen continued still to be of more importance, than the protection of the people.

## CHAP. VIII.

## MANNERS.

**A**N almost unlimited hospitality reigned in the palaces of princes, and the castles of great barons, in the times we are now delineating. The courts of some of the kings of England were splendid and numerous, to a degree hardly credible. That of Richard II. is thus described by Stowe. "His royalty was such, that wheresoever he lay, his person was guarded by two hundred Cheshiremen; he had about him thirteen bishops, besides barons, knights, esquires and others; inasmuch that ten thousand people came to the household for meat every day, as appeared by the messes told out of the kitchen to three hundred servants." We may form some idea of the magnificence and hospitality of the opulent barons of those times, from an account of the household expences of the earl of Lancaster in 1213, from which it appears, that this nobleman expended in house-keeping, during that year, no less than 7,309*l.* equal to 100,000*l.* of our present money. The consumption of wine alone was 371 pipes. The nobility in general spent almost all their revenues, in hospitality at their castles in the country, which were ever open to strangers of condition, as well as to their own vassals and followers. This profuse way of living began to decline a little towards the conclusion of this period; and some barons, instead of dining always in the great hall with their numerous dependents, according to ancient custom, dined sometimes in private parlours, with their own families and friends. But this innovation was very unpopular, and subjected those who adopted it to much reproach.

A splendid ostentatious kind of gallantry, expressive of the most profound respect and highest admiration of  
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the beauty and virtue of the ladies, was studied and practised by the martial barons, knights, and esquires of this period. This gallantry appeared in its greatest lustre at royal tournaments, and other grand and solemn festivals, at which the ladies shone in their brightest ornaments, and received peculiar honours. When Edward III. in 1344, celebrated the magnificent feast of the round table, at Windsor, to which all the nobility of his own dominions, and of the neighbouring countries had been invited, queen Philippa, and three hundred ladies, illustrious for their birth and beauty, uniformly dressed in the richest habits, adorned that solemnity, and were treated with the most pompous romantic testimonies of respect and admiration. Many of the most magnificent tournaments of those times were the effect of this kind of gallantry, and designed for the honour and entertainment of the ladies, who appeared at these solemnities in vast numbers, and from different countries. Sometimes a few brave and gallant knights published a proclamation in their own, and several other countries, asserting the superior beauty and virtue of the ladies whom they loved, and challenging all who dared to dispute that superiority, to meet them at a certain time and place to determine the important controversy by combat. These challenges were constantly accepted, and produced tournaments, to which princes, knights, and ladies of different nations crowded. This romantic gallantry displayed itself in times of war, as well as peace, and youthful knights fought as much for the honour of their mistresses as of their country. A party of English and a party of French cavalry met near Cherburg in 1379, and immediately prepared for battle. When they were on the point of engaging, Sir Lancelot de Lorres, a French knight, cried aloud, that he had a more beautiful mistress than any of the English. This was denied by Sir John Copeland, who run the Frenchman through

through the body with his spear, and laid him dead at his feet. When Edward III. raised a great army to assert his claim to the crown of France, a considerable number of young English gentlemen put each of them a patch upon one of his eyes, making a solemn vow to his mistress, that he would not take it off till he had performed some notable exploit in France to her honour.

The revival of chivalry by the Edwards contributed not a little to promote valour, munificence, and this splendid kind of gallantry, among persons of condition, who aspired to the honours of knighthood, which were then objects of ambition to the greatest princes. An ingenious writer, who had studied this subject with the greatest care, affirms positively, that "all the heroic virtues which then existed in the several states of christendom, were the fruits of chivalry."\* This assertion may be too strong; but it cannot be denied, that the spirit and the laws of chivalry were friendly to the cause of virtue. By these laws none but persons of unspotted characters could obtain the honours of knighthood, which were conferred with much solemnity, on the most public occasions, and in the presence of the most august assemblies. After the candidate had given sufficient proofs of his prowess, and other virtues, to merit that distinction, and had prepared himself for receiving it, by fasting, confessing, hearing masses, and other acts of devotion, he took an oath consisting of twenty-six articles, in which, amongst other things, he swore, that he would be a good, brave, loyal, just, generous, and gentle knight, a champion of the church and clergy, a protector of the ladies, and a redresser of the wrongs of widows and orphans. Those knights who acquitted themselves of these obligations in an honourable manner, were favoured by the fair and

courted

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\* St. Palaye sur l'Ancienne Chevalerie.

courted by the great; but those who were guilty of dishonourable actions, were degraded with every possible mark of infamy. All this could hardly fail to have some influence on the conduct of those, who were invested with that dignity.

Chivalry declined in England during the inglorious reigns of king John and Henry III. but revived under Edward I. That prince was one of the most accomplished knights of the age in which he flourished, and delighted in feats of chivalry. It is a sufficient proof of this, that when he was on his return from the Holy Land, after his father's death, and knew that his presence was ardently desired in England, he accepted an invitation to a tournament, at Chalons in Burgundy. At that famous tournament, which terminated in a real battle, he displayed his valour and dexterity to great advantage, and gained a complete victory. Edward III. was no less fond of chivalry, and encouraged it both by his example and munificence. In this he was influenced by policy, as well as inclination. Having formed the design of asserting his claim to the crown of France, he laboured to inspire his own subjects with an enterprising spirit, and to entice as many valiant foreigners as possible into his service. With this view he celebrated several pompous tournaments, to which he invited all strangers who delighted in feats of arms, entertained them with the greatest hospitality, and loaded such of them as excelled in these martial sports with honors and rewards, in order to attach them to his person and engage them to fight in his cause. With the same view, and about the same time, he founded the most honourable order of the garter, of which his own heroic son, the black prince, was the first knight; and all the first companions were persons famous for their victories at tournaments, and in real wars. In a word, chivalry, which is now an object of ridicule, was, in those times, a matter of the greatest

est moment, and had no little influence on the manners of mankind, and the fate of nations.

The varied and ridiculous modes of dress, which this period produced, were very justly the subject of bitter reprehension from the satirists of the time. What could exhibit a more fantastical appearance than an English beau of the fourteenth century? He wore long pointed shoes, fastened to his knees by gold or silver chains; a stocking of one colour on one leg, and of another colour on the other; short breeches which did not reach to the middle of his thighs; a coat, one half white, and the other half black or blue; a long beard; a silk hood buttoned under his chin, embroidered with grotesque figures of animals, and sometimes ornamented with gold, silver, and precious stones. This dress was the top of the mode in the reign of Edward III. The fashionable females are thus described by Knyghton. "The tournaments are attended by many ladies of the first rank and greatest beauty, dressed in party-coloured tunics. Their tippets are very short, their caps remarkably small, and wrapt about their heads with cords; their girdles are ornamented with gold and silver; and they wear short swords, like daggers, before them, which hang across their stomach. They are mounted on the finest horses, with the richest furniture; thus equipped they ride from place to place in quest of tournaments, by which they dissipate their fortunes, and often ruin their reputation."

The passion for feasting increased so much in England, during the 14th century, that a severe law was enacted by Edward III. to restrain certain ranks to proportionable banquets. His example, however, did not tend to enforce it; for, when his son, Lionel of Clarence, married Violentis of Milan, there were 30 courses, and the fragments of the table fed 1000 persons.

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When we speak of the luxuries of our ancestors, we must not forget *the wines*. This expression denoted a collation taken by the great and elegant just before they went to bed, which consisted of spiced liquors and delicate cakes. The wines were sometimes given immediately after dinner, and on the ceremonious visits of fashionable people at any hour.

In the course of the 14th century the Anglo-Saxon gradually changed into what may be called the English language, and forced its way into the courts of justice, from which it had been excluded almost 300 years. That animosity which had long subsisted between the posterity of the Normans and of the Anglo-Saxons, was now extinguished, and they were in a great measure consolidated into one people. Many of the Normans who were engaged in agriculture, trade and manufactures, found it necessary to speak the language of the multitude, into which they introduced many French words and idioms. Besides this, Chaucer, Gower, and several others, composed a number of volumes in English, and, being men of learning, borrowed many expressions from the Greek, Latin, Italian, and French languages, with which they enriched their own. But the mode of spelling was unsettled, and very different from the modern. Several words were then in common use, which are now become obsolete; and the meaning of several words was very different from what it is at present. A knave for example, signified a servant, in opposition to a freeman; and sometimes a male, in opposition to a female: "*The time is come, and a knave child she bare.*"\* Its modern meaning is well known.



## CHAP. IX.

## INCIDENTS AND CURIOUS PARTICULARS.

**I**N 1236, at Merton, in Surry, the lay-nobility made the celebrated declaration, "We will not suffer the laws of England to be altered." The pope had endeavoured to introduce a constitution of the canon law, which legitimates, on the marriage of the parents, all children born of those parents before such marriage. But here the laity triumphed over the clergy.

In 1246, Cheapside was a void space, called Crown-field, from the Crown-Inn adjoining to it. The city lay more to the Eastward. In 1251, a bard, styled "*Master Henry the Versifier*" had one hundred shillings allowed him, as a fee of office. He is thus described, in a sharp satire, by an humorous Cornish poet; whom he happened to offend by reflections on his country.

"The thigh of a sparrow, the feet of a goat,

"Hare-lips and boar's fangs, thee a monster denote,

"Thou canst whine like a whelp, like a bull thou canst roar,

"Thou art foul as a witch, and as black as a Moor,

"Thus peerless appearing, believe *me* thy songster,

"Thy grimly grimaces demonstrate a monster."

In 1276, it was enacted, that no ship should be deemed a wreck, out of which a *man*, a *dog*, or a *cat* had escaped with life.

In 1283, say the annals of Dunstable, "we sold our slave by birth, William Pike, with all his family, and received one mark from the buyer." Men must then have been cheaper than horses.

In 1302, the mariner's compass was invented by Givius of Naples.—Much about the same time the exchequer was robbed of 100,000 pounds. The abbot and monks of Westminster were indicted for the robbery, but acquitted. Though the criminals were never  
discovered

discovered, the indignation of king David I. fell on the society of Lombard merchants.

In 1316, on account of a great famine, the parliament limited the price of provisions. An ox cost two pounds eight shillings; a fat hog, ten shillings; a sheep, three shillings and sixpence; a fat goose, sevenpence halfpenny; a fat capon, sixpence; a fat hen, three-pence; two chickens, three-pence; four pigeons, three-pence; two dozen eggs, three-pence. The rates affixed by parliament were inferior to the usual market prices, in those years of famine and mortality of cattle, and these commodities, instead of a third, had really risen to a half of the present value. But the famine at that time was so consuming, that wheat was sometimes sold for above four pounds ten shillings a quarter; a certain proof of the wretched state of agriculture in those ages.

In 1327, Southwark, having long been an asylum for rogues and vagabonds, was united to London, and placed under the power of its Lord Mayor and Aldermen.

In 1340, gunpowder and guns were first invented by Swartz, a monk of Cologne. In 1346, Edward III. had four pieces of cannon, which contributed to gain him the battle of Cressly. Bombs and mortars were invented about this time.

In 1349, Edward III. instituted the order of the garter, in imitation of some others of a similar nature, which had been established in different parts of Europe. A story prevails, but unsupported by ancient authority, that the countess of Salisbury, at a ball, happening to drop her garter, the king took it up, and observing some of his courtiers to smile, cried out, *Honi soit qui mal y pense*, "Evil to him that evil thinks." He then instituted the order of the garter in memorial of this event, and gave these words as the motto of the order.

In 1386, the magnificent castle of Windsor was built

built by Edward III. and his method of conducting the work may serve as a specimen of the condition of the people in that age. Instead of engaging workmen by contracts and wages, he assessed every county in England to send him a certain number of masons, tilers, and carpenters, as if he had been levying an army.

The greatest novelty introduced into the civil government, during the reign of Richard II. was the creation of peers by patent. Lord Beauchamp of Holt was the first peer advanced *to the house of lords, in this manner.*

## BOOK V.

## CHAP. I.

MILITARY HISTORY FROM THE ACCESSION OF  
HENRY IV. IN 1399, TO THE ACCESSION OF  
HENRY VII. IN 1485.

**H**ENRY IV. son of John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, fourth son of Edward III. being settled on the throne of England in prejudice to the elder branches of his family, several of the principal nobility, who entered into a conspiracy against him, were secured and executed. This was the cause of an insurrection in Wales. Owen Glendour, descended from the ancient princes of that country, having become obnoxious on account of his attachment to the late king, lord Gray, who was closely connected with Henry, and had a great fortune in the marshes of Wales, availed himself of this circumstance to seize upon his neighbour's estate. Glendour recovered possession by the sword. Henry sent assistance to lord Gray. The Welsh took part with Glendour, when a troublesome and tedious war was kindled; A. D. 1401, which the Welsh chieftain long sustained by his valour and activity.

The confusions incident to all great states now tempted the Scots to make incursions into England. Archibald, earl of Douglas, on his return from one of these irruptions, was overtaken by the Percies, at a place called Homeldon, on the borders of England, and a fierce battle ensued, wherein the Scots were totally routed, and Douglas himself, with many others of the nobility and gentry, were taken prisoners. When  
Henry

Henry received intelligence of this victory, he sent a message to the earl of Northumberland not to ransom his prisoners, as he intended to detain them, in order to make an advantageous peace with Scotland. But the earl regarding them as his right, according to the laws of war in that age, this demand gave great disgust to him, more especially, when he considered himself as the principal person to whom Henry was indebted for his crown.

The impatient spirit of his son, Henry Percy, surnamed *Hotspur*, and the factious disposition of the earl of Worcester, Northumberland's younger brother, inflamed the descendants of that nobleman. He entered into a correspondence with Glendour, gave liberty to the earl of Douglas, with whom he made an alliance, and roused up all his partizans to arms. Northumberland being seized with a sudden illness, young Percy took the command of the troops, and marched towards Shrewsbury, in order to join his forces with those of Glendour. The king had fortunately a small army on foot, with which he instantly hurried away, and approached Percy, near Shrewsbury, before he was joined by Glendour. The policy of one leader, and the impatience of the other immediately brought on a battle. On the preceding evening, Percy published a manifesto, in which, after renouncing his allegiance, he enumerated all the grievances of the nation. Among these, he upbraids him with usurping on the title of the house of Mortimer, who had a prior right to the throne, being the immediate descendants of Lionel duke of Clarence, the elder brother of the late duke of Lancaster.

The armies were nearly equal in number, consisting of 12,000 men each; and we scarcely find any battle in those ages, where the shock was more terrible or more constant. Henry exposed his person in the thickest of the fight. His gallant son, the prince of Wales,

Wales, whose military achievements were afterwards so renowned, and who here performed his noviciate in arms, signalized himself in his father's footsteps; and even a wound, which he received in the face with an arrow, could not oblige him to quit the field. On the other side, Percy supported that fame which he had acquired in many a bloody combat; and Douglas still appeared his rival, amidst the horror and confusion of the day. But while the armies were contending in this furious manner, the death of Percy, by an unknown hand, decided the victory, and the royalists prevailed.

The earl of Northumberland, having recovered from his sickness, had levied a fresh army, and was on his march to join his son; but hearing of the defeat at Shrewsbury, he dismissed his forces, and came with a small retinue to the king at York. He pretended, that his sole intention in arming, was to mediate between the parties. This seemed to satisfy Henry, who granted him a pardon. Not being able, however, to repress his enmity towards the king, the earl afterwards joined in rebellion with several others, and at length lost his life in the cause.

Henry being freed, by the death of Northumberland, and that of Glendour, which happened soon after, from all his domestic enemies, endeavoured to regain the popularity which he had lost by his late severities. The house of commons, on this occasion, became sensible of their own importance, and began to assume powers, which had not usually been exercised by their predecessors. Among other advances of this kind, in the sixth year of Henry's reign, when they voted him supplies, they appointed *treasurers of their own*, to see that the money was disbursed for the purposes intended.

Henry died at Westminster in the 46th year of his age, and the 13th of his reign, leaving behind him the reputation of a wise prince, and a prudent king, but  
of

of a bad man. He had by his first wife, Mary de Bohun, daughter of the earl of Hereford, four sons, namely, Henry his successor, Thomas duke of Clarence, John duke of Bedford, and Humphrey duke of Gloucester; and two daughters. His second wife, Jane, daughter of the king of Navarre, brought him no issue.

Henry V. succeeded to the throne in 1413. The precarious situation of his father had so much infected his temper with jealousy, that he entertained unreasonable suspicions with regard to the fidelity of his eldest son, and excluded him from all share in public business. The active spirit of young Henry, restrained from its proper exercise, broke out into extravagances of riot and debauchery, which threw him among companions totally unworthy of his rank and station. When heated with liquor and jollity, he scrupled not to accompany his riotous associates in attacking persons on the streets and highways. One of his dissolute companions having been indicted before Sir William Gascoigne, the chief justice, for some disorders, Henry was not ashamed to appear at the bar with the criminal, in order to give him countenance and protection. Finding that his presence did not overawe the chief justice, he proceeded to insult him on his tribunal. But Gascoigne, mindful of the character he then bore, ordered the prince to be imprisoned for his rude behaviour, to which Henry peaceably submitted. The nation in general considered the young prince with more indulgence than his father, and observed so many gleams of generosity, spirit, and magnanimity, breaking through his wildness, that they never ceased hoping for his amendment.

The first steps taken by the young king confirmed those prepossessions in his favour. He immediately dismissed the companions of his dissolute courses, and received the wise ministers of his father, who had checked

checked his riots, with all the marks of favour and confidence. The chief justice himself, who trembled to approach the royal presence, met with praises instead of reproaches for his past conduct.

As it was the dying request of the late king to his son not to allow the English to remain long in peace, which was apt to breed intestine commotions, he determined to take advantage of the confusion which reigned in France, through the contentions of the dukes of Orleans and Burgundy, each of whom aspired to the administration of affairs, Charles VI. by sudden fits of frenzy, being rendered incapable of conducting the government. Henry accordingly assembled a large fleet and army at Southampton, in order to invade that kingdom, and landed near Harfleur, at the head of 6000 men at arms, and 24,000 foot, mostly archers. He immediately laid siege to that place, and notwithstanding he met with a vigorous resistance, took it.

The fatigues of the siege, and the unusual heat of the season, had so wasted the English army, that Henry could enter on no farther enterprise; and was obliged to think of returning to England. But as he had dismissed his transports, he lay under the necessity of marching by land to Calais. While he was pursuing this rout, continually harassed by the enemy, his provisions cut off, and his soldiers languishing with sickness and fatigue, he was surprized to observe the whole French army, consisting of ten times the number of his diminished force, under the command of the constable D'Albert, drawn up on the plains of Agincourt. Henry's situation was now exactly similar to that of king Edward at Cressy, and that of the Black Prince at Poitiers; and the memory of those great events inspired the English with courage, and made them hope for a like deliverance from their present difficulties. An engagement could not be avoided.



Henry, therefore, as the enemy were so superior in numbers, drew up his army on a narrow ground between two woods, to cover each flank, and patiently expected in that posture their attack. Had the French general declined a combat, the English must have relinquished the advantages of their situation; but the impetuous valour of the nobility, and a vain confidence in superior numbers, brought on an action, which proved glorious to the English.

After the battle was ended, and all appearance of opposition was over, an alarm was heard from behind, which proceeded from some peasants, who had fallen upon the baggage, and were putting the unarmed followers of the camp to the sword. Henry seeing the enemy on all sides of him, began to entertain apprehensions from his prisoners, the number of whom exceeded that of his whole army; and he thought it necessary to issue general orders for putting them to death. But on discovering the truth, he stopped the slaughter, and saved many. In this battle, so much celebrated by the name of the battle of Agincourt, the killed amounted to 10,000, and 14,000 were made prisoners, while the loss of the English did not exceed forty. Henry without discontinuing his march for a moment, carried his prisoners to Calais, and thence to England. He even concluded a truce with the enemy; and it was not till after an interval of two years that any body of English troops appeared in France.

During this interruption of hostilities from England, France was still exposed to all the furies of a civil war; in the course of which, the duke of Orleans was assassinated by the duke of Burgundy, and he, in his turn, fell by the treachery of the dauphin. In a state  
A. D. 1418. so ill prepared to resist a foreign enemy, Henry landed in Normandy, at the head of 25,000 men, and after reducing several places, even threatened Paris, from whence the terror of his arms  
had

had obliged the court to remove to Troye. In the midst of these successes, he was agreeably surprised to find his enemies, instead of combining against him, disposed to rush into his arms, and to make him the instrument of their vengeance on each other. The imbecility into which the French king had fallen, rendering him passive in every thing, a treaty was entered into, wherein it was agreed that Henry should espouse the princess Catherine; that king Charles, during his lifetime, should enjoy the title and dignity of king of France; that Henry should be acknowledged heir of the monarchy, and be intrusted with the present administration of the government; and that the kingdom should pass to his heirs general.

In a few days after signing the treaty of Troye, Henry espoused the princess Catherine, and carrying his father-in-law to Paris, took possession of that capital. He then turned his arms with success, against the dauphin, who assumed the style and authority of regent. And to crown all this good fortune, his queen was delivered of a son, whose birth was celebrated by rejoicings no less pompous, and no less sincere at Paris, than at London. The infant prince seemed to be universally regarded as the future heir of both monarchies. But the glory of the king, when it had nearly reached the summit, was stopped short by **A. D. 1422.** the hand of nature. He was seized with a fistula, a malady which the surgeons at that time had not skill enough to cure, and died in the 34th year of his age, and the 10th of his reign.

This prince possessed many eminent virtues. His abilities appeared equally in the cabinet and in the field. The boldness of his enterprises was no less remarkable, than his personal valour in conducting them. He had the talent of attaching his friends by affability, and of gaining his enemies by address and clemency. The English, dazzled by the lustre of his character,  
still

still more than by that of his victories, were reconciled to the defects in his title, and the French almost forgot that he was an enemy. He left by his queen, Catherine of France, only one son, not full nine months old, who succeeded to the throne. Catherine, soon after his death, married Sir Owen Tudor, a Welsh gentleman, by whom she had two sons, of whom the eldest was created earl of Richmond, and the second earl of Pembroke. The family of Tudor, first raised to distinction by this alliance, mounted afterwards the throne of England.

Henry VI. surnamed of Windsor, being a minor, the affairs of government were conducted by his two uncles, the dukes of Bedford and Gloucester, men of great courage and accomplishments, but unable to preserve their brother's conquests. Upon the death of Charles VI. the affections of the French for his family revived in the person of his son and successor Charles VII. The duke of Bedford, who was regent of France, performed many glorious actions, and at last laid siege to Orleans, the capture of which would have completed the conquest of France. The siege, however, was raised by the valour and good conduct of Joan d'Arc, the *Maid of Orleans*, a phenomenon hardly to be paralleled in history. She was a servant of a small inn, and in that station had been accustomed to tend the horses of the guests, and to perform those offices which fall to the share of the men servants. She was of an irreproachable life, and had never given any proofs of that enterprising spirit, which afterwards rendered her name so famous. The present distressed situation of France excited the feelings of every rank; and Joan, inflamed by the general sentiment, was seized with a wild desire of bringing relief to her sovereign in his present distresses. Her mind being continually employed on this object, she fancied that she saw visions, and heard voices, exhorting her to re-establish

lish the throne of France, and to expel the foreign invaders. Thinking herself destined by heaven to this office, she went to Vaucouleurs, and having obtained admission to the governor, informed him of her inspirations and intentions. Though the governor treated her at first with some neglect, he at last adopted her schemes, and gave her some attendants to conduct her to Chinon, where the French court then resided.

Being introduced to the king, she offered in the name of the supreme creator, to raise the siege of Orleans, and conduct him to Rheims to be crowned. An assembly of grave doctors examined her mission, and she was interrogated by parliament; who were all convinced of her inspiration. Joan was now armed cap-a-pee, mounted on horseback, and shown in that martial habiliment to the people. She was then sent to Blois, where a large convoy was prepared for the supply of Orleans; and having ordered all the soldiers to confess themselves before they set out on their enterprise, she put herself at the head of them, with a consecrated banner in her hand, and safely escorted the supply to the city. The French now believed themselves invincible under her influence, while a dead silence and astonishment reigned among those troops formerly so elated with victory. The spirit resulting from a long course of uninterrupted success, was on a sudden transferred from the victors to the vanquished.

A. D. 1429. The siege of Orleans was soon raised; and the French allowing the English no leisure to recover from their consternation, pushed on their conquest till Charles was crowned at Rheims, as the *Maid* had foretold. During the ceremony she stood by the king's side, holding in her hand the sacred banner. After the coronation she wished to retire to her native place, but the French general being sensible of the advantages which might still be reaped from her presence, she was prevailed on to stay. In pursuance  
of

of this advice, she threw herself into the town of Compeigne, at that time besieged by the duke of Burgundy, where she was taken prisoner by the English in making a sally. The duke of Bedford, resolved upon her ruin, ordered her to be tried by an ecclesiastical court, for sorcery, idolatry, and magic. She was found guilty by her ignorant or iniquitous judges; her revelations were declared to be the inventions of the devil to delude the people; and this admirable heroine was cruelly delivered over to the flames, and expiated by the punishment of fire the signal services done to her prince and country.

The affairs of the English, however, instead of being advanced by this act of cruelty, went every day more and more to decay. Even the great abilities of the regent could not stop the torrent of ill success; till at length his death put a concluding stroke to the triumph of the English, and, after some years, they had nothing left of their conquests, but the town of Calais.

In proportion as Henry advanced in years, his character became fully known in the court. Of the most inoffensive and simple manners, but of the most slender capacity, he was fitted to be governed by those who surrounded him, and it was easy to foresee that his reign would prove a perpetual minority. As he had now reached the age of manhood, it was natural to think of choosing him a queen; and each party was ambitious of making him receive one from their hand, as it was probable this circumstance would decide for ever the victory between them. The cardinal of Winchester proved successful, and Henry was contracted to Margaret of Anjou, daughter of Regnier, titular king of Sicily, Naples, and Jerusalem, descended from a count of Anjou, who had left these magnificent titles to his posterity, without any real power or possessions. The treaty of marriage was ratified in England, and Margaret on her arrival, fell immediately into close connections

nections with the cardinal and his party, who, fortified by her powerful patronage, resolved on the final ruin of the duke of Gloucester.

This generous prince had already received from his rivals a cruel mortification. His duchess, the daughter of lord Cobham, had been accused of witchcraft. It was pretended that there was found in her possession, a waxen figure of the king, which she and her associates melted in a magical manner before a slow fire, with an intention of making Henry's strength waste away by the like insensible degrees. The nature of this crime, as the philosophic Hume ingeniously observes, so opposite to all common sense, seems always to exempt the accusers from observing the rules of common sense in their evidence. The prisoners being pronounced guilty, the duchess was condemned to do public penance, and to suffer perpetual imprisonment; and her supposed accomplices were executed. But the people, contrary to their usual practice on such marvellous trials, acquitted the unhappy sufferers, and ascribed these violent proceedings solely to the malice of the duke's enemies. The cardinal of Winchester and his party, therefore, became sensible that it was necessary to destroy a man whose popularity made him dangerous, and whose resentment they had so much cause to apprehend. Being accused of treason, and imprisoned, he was soon after found dead in bed, and though his body bore no marks of outward violence, no one doubted but he had fallen a victim to the vengeance of his enemies. His murder excited general abhorrence, and laid a foundation for the troubles that ensued.

The discontents of the people broke out in various commotions, which were soon suppressed; but there arose one in Kent, which was attended with more dangerous consequences. John Cade, a native of Ireland, and a man of low condition, who had been obliged for his crimes to fly into France, observing, on his return,  
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this disposition, assumed the name of Mortimer, and at the head of 20,000 Kentish men, encamped on Blackheath, in his way to the capital, in order to obtain a redress of grievances. The city opened its gates to Cade, who for some time maintained great order and discipline among his followers. But at length, not being able to hinder them from plundering a rich house, the citizens, assisted by a detachment of soldiers from the tower, repulsed the rebels with great slaughter. The Kentish men were so discouraged at this blow, that upon receiving a general pardon, they retreated towards Rochester, and there dispersed. This pardon was soon after annulled, and a price being set on Cade's head, he was killed by a gentleman of Sussex, and many of his followers were capitally punished for their rebellion.

It was imagined that the duke of York secretly instigated Cade to this attempt. Be this as it may, it occasioned his right to the throne to become every day more and more the subject of conversation, and excited his partizans to maintain it in all companies. But the duke himself, being averse to violent measures, acted with great moderation; and even when no visible object lay between him and the throne, he was prevented

A. D. 1454. by his own scruples from mounting it. The king, however, being seized with a distemper, which so far increased his natural imbecility, as to render him incapable of maintaining even the appearance of royalty, the duke of York was appointed lieutenant of the kingdom; with powers to open and hold a parliament.

The forbearance of Richard, upon this occasion, though very amiable and unusual, proved the source of all those furious wars and commotions which ensued. For no sooner was Henry recovered from his distemper, so as to carry the appearance of exercising the royal power, than his queen, a woman of a bold spirit  
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and manly understanding, advised him to disannul the protectorship of the duke, and place the administration in the hands of Somerset, who was obnoxious to the people. Richard, upon this, having levied an army, without advancing any pretensions to the crown, a battle was fought near St. Alban's, in which the Yorkists were victorious. The king himself fell into the hands of the duke, by whom he was treated with great respect and tenderness.

This was the first blood spilt in that fatal quarrel, which lasted thirty years, was signalized by twelve pitched battles, cost the lives of eighty princes of the blood, and almost entirely annihilated the ancient nobility of England.

Various were the turns of success during this contest between Henry and the duke of York. The king, by the direction of Margaret, having resumed his prerogative, a battle was fought on Bloreheath, in Staffordshire, which terminated in favour of the duke. Sir Andrew Trollop, however, soon after deserting to the royalists, when a general action was every hour expected, the Yorkists were so dismayed, that they separated without striking a stroke. After several engagements the duke of York was slain in a battle, between him and the queen, at Wakefield, in the year 1460. This much and justly lamented prince left three sons, Edward, who succeeded to the title, and afterwards to the throne, George and Richard, with three daughters. The event gave fresh spirits to the Lancastrian party.

Upon the death of the duke of York, the earl of Warwick took the command of the forces belonging to that party. This nobleman, commonly known, from the subsequent events, by the appellation of the *King-maker*, was distinguished for his bravery, hospitality, and magnificence: Having always been zealous in the cause of the house of York, he entertained an inveterate hatred to Margaret and her favourites. Soon



Soon after he had assumed the command, he met the queen at St. Alban's where another action ensued, in which he was defeated, and the king fell again into the hands of his own party. This weak prince was sure to be almost equally a prisoner which ever faction prevailed, as the queen and her ministers held him in a continual state of submission to their will.

Edward the young duke of York now appeared at the head of the cause, and gave new spirits to it. This prince being very handsome, and remarkable for his bravery, activity, and affability, soon found himself so much possessed of public favour, that he determined to assume the name and dignity of king, and to insist openly on his claim. For this purpose, he advanced with the remains of Warwick's army towards London, and having obliged Margaret to retire, entered the city amidst the acclamations of the people. Finding this a favourable juncture to possess himself of the crown, A. D. 1461. he assembled his army in St. John's Fields, and having harangued the surrounding multitude, asked them whether they would have Henry or him for their king. The people unanimously declaring in his favour, this popular election was ratified by a great number of lords and bishops, and the new king was proclaimed under the title of Edward IV. In this manner ended the reign of Henry VI. who had been proclaimed king both of France and England, while he was in his cradle, and began his life with the most splendid prospects. His weakness, however, and his disputed title brought about this revolution.

Young Edward, now in his twentieth year, was of a temper well fitted to make his way through such a scene of war, and devastation, as must conduct him to the full possession of his crown. He was bold, active, and enterprising, but so totally insensible to the least movements of compassion, that the scaffold, as well as the

the field, incessantly streamed with the noblest blood of England.

The animosity between the two contending families was now become implacable, and the nation, divided in its affections, took different symbols of party. The adherents of the house of Lancaster having chosen, as their mark of distinction, the *Red Rose*, and those of York, the *White*, these civil wars were known over Europe by the name of the "*Quarrel between the Two Roses*."

Soon after his coronation, Edward privately married Elizabeth, the widow of Sir John Gray, though he had some time before sent the earl of Warwick to demand the sister of the French king in marriage. In this embassy he was successful, and nothing remained but to bring over the princess into England. When the secret of Edward's marriage broke out, the haughty earl deeming himself affronted, returned to England inflamed with rage and indignation, and from being the king's best friend became his most formidable enemy. To such a length did this nobleman carry his resentment, that although the greatest animosity had so long prevailed between him and the house of Lancaster, he was, at last, prevailed on to espouse the cause of Henry, who, by the assistance of Lewis VI. of France, was replaced on the throne, whilst Edward narrowly escaped into Holland. Returning from thence after nine months, he advanced to London, under pretence of claiming his dukedom of York; but being received into the capital, he resumed the exercise of royal authority, and made king Henry his prisoner, who, destined to be the perpetual sport of fortune, thus fell again into the hands of his enemies.

The king now finding himself in a condition to face Warwick, who had taken post at Barnet, marched from London to attack him; and being joined the night before the battle, by his brother Clarence, who, upon  
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this occasion, ungenerously deserted his father in law, victory declared in his favour. The earl, after having displayed uncommon valour, lost his life in the engagement, as did a great number of his adherents.

The same day on which this decisive battle was fought, queen Margaret and her son, a young prince of great hopes, now about eighteen years of age, landed at Weymouth, supported by a small body of French forces. When this princess received the unhappy tidings, her courage quite forsook her, and she took sanctuary in the abbey of Beaulieu. But being encouraged by the appearance of several powerful noblemen, she resumed her former spirit, and determined to defend to the utmost, the ruins of her fallen fortunes. She advanced, through the counties of Devon, Somerset, and Gloucester, towards the north, increasing her army in each day's march; but at last, being overtaken by Edward at Tewkesbury, she was totally defeated.

Margaret and her son were made prisoners, and brought to the king, who asked the prince, how he dared to invade his dominions? The young prince replying with a noble intrepidity, that he came thither to claim his just inheritance, the ungenerous Edward, insensible to pity, struck him on the face with his gauntlet, when the dukes of Clarence and Gloucester, with some other noblemen, taking the blow as a signal for farther violence, hurried the prince into the next apartment, and there dispatched him with their daggers. Margaret was thrown into the tower, and Henry, as was generally believed, killed by the duke of Gloucester; so that all the hopes of the house of Lancaster seemed now to be utterly extinguished.

Peace being thus fully restored to the nation, a parliament was summoned, which ratified, as usual, all the acts of the victor, and recognized his legal authority. But this prince who had been so firm, active, and intrepid, in adversity, still unable to resist the allurements  
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of prosperity, wholly devoted himself, as before, to pleasure and amusement.

While the king was thus indulging himself in dissipation, he was roused from his lethargy by a prospect of foreign conquests. Agreeably to a league he had entered into with the duke of Burgundy, he crossed the seas at the head of 10,000 men, to invade the French territories; and though he did not meet with the assistance he expected from the duke, he obliged the French king to pay him down 75,000 crowns, and likewise 50,000 crowns a year during their joint lives; a stipulation far from being adequate to the expences of the armament. By this treaty queen Margaret was ransomed for 50,000 crowns, and after such a variety of fortune, passed the remainder of her days in tranquillity, till the year 1482, when she died.

Among other acts of Edward's severity, was his treatment of his brother Clarence, who though he had rendered him such a signal service, in deserting Warrick, just before the battle of Barnet, could never regain his confidence and friendship; and a trivial incident gave Edward an opportunity of gratifying his animosity against him. The king hunting one day, in the park of Thomas Burdet, of Arrow, in Warrickshire, killed a white buck, which was a great favourite of its owner. Burdet, vexed at his loss, fell into a passion, and wished the horns of the deer in the belly of the person who had advised the king to commit that insult upon him. Being a friend and dependant of the duke of Clarence, this hasty expression was considered as unpardonable by the vindictive Edward, who caused the speaker of it to be tried for his life, and executed;

The duke, unable to contain his resentment at the death of his friend, exclaimed publicly against the iniquity of the prosecution. For this he was committed to the tower; and being summoned to appear before the house of lords, where the king appeared as his accuser,

cufer, he was condemned to die. The only favour his brother granted him, after his condemnation, was to leave him the choice of his death, when he was privately drowned in a butt of Malmesey wine; a choice, which seems to imply, that the duke had an extraordinary fondness for that liquor:

All the glories of Edward's reign terminated with the civil wars, and even there his laurels were sullied with blood, violence, and cruelty. While he was making preparations for another war with France, he was seized with a distemper, of which he expired in the 42nd year of his age, and the 23d of his reign, leaving two sons, Edward prince of Wales, then in his thirteenth year, and Richard duke of York, in his ninth. He had also five daughters.

Edward V. having received the oaths of the principal nobility, his uncle Richard, duke of Gloucester, was made protector of the kingdom. He was no sooner invested with this title by the council, than under pretence of guarding the young king, and his brother the duke of York, he committed them both to the tower. He had endeavoured to cover, by the most profound dissimulation his fierce and savage nature; but being void of all principles of honour, he soon carried his ambitious views beyond the reach of precaution, and no longer hesitated to remove all obstructions which lay between him and the throne.

For this purpose, he first secured to his interest the duke of Buckingham, a man of noble birth, ample possessions, and shining parts. He then tried to gain the assistance of Lord Hastings, whom he found impregnable in his fidelity to the children of Edward, and therefore determined to cut him off. Having summoned a council in the tower, the protector entered with an angry and inflamed countenance, and asked them what punishment those deserved, who had plotted against his life? Hastings replied, that they merited the

the punishment of traitors. "These traitors," cried Richard, "are the forceress, my brother's wife, and Jane Shore, his mistress. See to what a condition they have reduced me by, their incantations," upon which he laid bare his arm, all shrivelled and decayed. The counsellors, who knew that this infirmity had attended him from his birth, looked at each other with amazement; but above all lord Hastings, who said, "If they be guilty of these crimes, they deserve the severest punishment."—"And do you reply to me," exclaimed Richard, with your *ifs* and your *ands*? You are the chief abettor of that witch, Shore, and are yourself a traitor!" Saying this, he struck the table with his hand, when armed men rushed in, and seizing Hastings, hurried him into the court-yard of the tower, where they instantly beheaded him on a log of timber. The protector, in order to carry on the farce, caused Jane Shore to be summoned before the council for forcery and witchcraft; but as no proofs appeared against her, he directed her to be tried in the spiritual court, for adultery and lewdness, when she did penance in a white sheet at St. Paul's. Born of respectable parents in London, this lady was well educated, and married to a substantial citizen. But views of interest, rather than her inclinations, having been consulted in the match, she proved unable to resist the allurements of the handsome Edward. She made herself respectable, however, by her beneficence, humanity, and many other virtues; though these could not secure her from languishing out a long life in solitude and indigence.

The arts of violence, exercised against the nearest connexions of the late king, prognosticated the severest fate to his defenceless children; and after the murder of Hastings, the protector no longer made a secret of his intentions to usurp the crown. He endeavoured to prove the children of Edward illegitimate, as well as his own brother, to the disgrace of his mother, the  
duchess

duchess of York, who was then living. He next ordered the mayor of London, whom he had gained to his interest, to call an assembly of the citizens; but though the duke of Buckingham, a man of great eloquence, harangued them on Richard's title to the crown, and talked of his numerous virtues, no tokens of approbation ensued. A few of the meanest apprentices only, incited by the protector's and Buckingham's servants, raised a feeble cry of *God save king Richard III!*

This being construed by the mayor into the voice of the people, they hastened to the protector, to make him a tender of the crown, when Richard, with apparent reluctance, accepted the offered dignity.

This ridiculous farce was soon followed by a scene truly tragical,—the murder of the two young princes. Richard gave orders to Sir Robert Brakenbury, constable of the tower, to put his nephews to death. This gentleman, however, refusing to have any hand in the infamous office, the tyrant commanded him to deliver A. D. 1483. the keys of the Tower; for one night, to Sir James Tyrrel, by whom, and three of his associates, the young princes were suffocated, with the bolsters and pillows, as they lay asleep, and their bodies buried, under a heap of stones, at the foot of the stairs.

The first acts of *Richard's* administration were to bestow rewards on those who had assisted him in usurping the crown, and to gain by favors those whom he supposed could best support his future government. But the duke of Buckingham, having formed a conspiracy against him, was encouraged by the sentiments of the people, who thought it was not only a national disgrace to endure such a bloody usurper, but attended with immediate danger to every individual distinguished by birth, merit, or services. And as the family of the duke had been devoted to the house of Lancaster, he was

was easily induced to espouse the cause of that party, in order to restore it to its ancient superiority. This being the case, he cast his eyes towards Henry, the young earl of Richmond, who was descended from John of Gaunt, as the only person who could free the nation from the tyranny of the present usurper. A match being also agreed on, through the mediation of the duke, between young Richmond and the princess Elizabeth, eldest daughter of the late king Edward, the queen dowager sent over to the earl, who was at that time in Brittany, a sum of money to levy foreign forces; promising to join him on his first appearance, with all the friends and partizans of her family.

The plan being thus laid, the duke of Buckingham retired into Wales, to raise an army; but at that very time there happened to fall such uncommonly heavy rains, as rendered the Severn, and the adjacent rivers, impassable. Upon which, the Welshmen, partly moved by superstition at this extraordinary event, and partly distressed by famine in their camp, fell off from him. Buckingham finding himself thus deserted, put on a disguise, and took shelter in the house of an old servant of his family. In a short time, however, being detected in his retreat, he was brought to the king at Salisbury, and instantly executed.

At length the earl of Richmond set sail from Harfleur, in Normandy, with a small army of about 2000 men, and landed, without opposition, at Milford-haven, in Wales, while Richard, who knew not in what quarter he might expect the invader, had taken post at Nottingham, in the center of the kingdom. The two rivals, at last, approached each other at Bosworth, near Leicester; Henry at the head of 6000 men, and Richard with an army of above double that number. Soon after the battle began, lord Stanley, who had posted himself at Atherston, in order to join either party, as occasion might suit, appeared in the field,



and declared for Richmond. This measure, which was unexpected to the men, though not to their leaders, inspired unusual courage into Henry's soldiers, and threw Richard's into dismay and confusion. The intrepid tyrant, sensible of his desperate situation, fought with unexampled fury to the last moment, A. D. 1485. when, overwhelmed by numbers, he perished by a fate too mild and honourable for his multiplied and detestable enormities. This prince is said to have been of a small stature, hump-backed, and of a harsh, disagreeable countenance, so that his body was no less deformed than his mind.

After the battle, the ornamental crown, which Richard wore in battle, being placed upon Henry's head, *Long live Henry VII.* resounded from all quarters, and was continued with repeated acclamations.— Thus ended the race of the Plantagenets, who had sat upwards of 300 years upon the throne of England, and thus the civil wars, which had so long desolated the kingdom.

## CHAP. II.

### RELIGION AND ECCLESIASTICAL AFFAIRS.

THE Lollards, or followers of Wickliffe, greatly increased, during this period, and became formidable both to the church and to civil authority. At the head of this sect, in the reign of Henry V. was Sir John Oldcastle, lord Cobham, a nobleman who had distinguished himself by his valour and military talents. His high character, and his zeal for the sect, pointing him out to the archbishop of Canterbury, as the proper victim of ecclesiastical severity, he was convicted and condemned to the flames. Cobham, however, found means to escape from the tower before the day

day appointed for his execution, when his party, stimulated by zeal, appointed a general rendezvous, in order to seize the king, and put their persecutors to the sword. But Henry having got intelligence of their designs, surprised and took a great number of them, some of whom were executed. Cobham himself, after a variety of distresses, being seized and hanged as a traitor, his body was burnt on the gibbet, in consequence of the sentence pronounced against him as a heretic.

The archbishop now commanded the university of Oxford to appoint twelve of its most orthodox members to examine the works of Wickliffe, and extract his heretical doctrines. In compliance with this injunction, 267 erroneous opinions were transmitted to the primate, who sent them to the pope, with a request to condemn them, and grant him authority to take the body of Wickliffe out of the grave, and throw it on a dunghill, that it might be trampled on by all christians. The pope condemned Wickliffe's doctrines, but would not permit the primate to disturb his ashes.

About this time, John Hufs, professor of divinity in the university of Prague, converted to the opinions of Wickliffe a great number of his countrymen. The council of Constance had resolved to condemn him unheard, when the emperor of Germany desired them to listen to what he had to say in his defence. He was accordingly accused of heresy in 39 articles, part of which he denied, and part he offered to defend. But his voice was drowned by the noise purposely made by the cardinals; and on his refusing to abjure all the articles, he was immediately declared a hardened heretic, and a fower of sedition. As such he was degraded by four bishops, stripped of his sacerdotal habit, and clothed in a lay dress. His hair being cut in the form of a cross, a paper mitre was put upon his head,

head, painted with the representation of three devils, and he was delivered over to the secular judge, who condemned him and his writings to the flames, and fixed the day of his execution. He died with great constancy. His friend Jerome soon after shared the same fate.

Great stress was now laid on pilgrimages, processions, indulgences, confessions to priests, and their pardons. George Neville, archbishop of York, enumerates no fewer than 37 kinds of sin, which none but the pope or a bishop could pardon. The first and greatest of these sins was heresy, and the least, in the estimation of the church, was raising a sedition, which endangered a state or city.

### CHAP. III.

#### GOVERNMENT AND LAWS.

**T**HOUGH the constitution, government, and laws of England, had not yet arrived at that excellence to which they have since attained, they were considerably improved in the course of this period, and much exceeded those of any other state in Europe. It was still, however, an undisputed prerogative of the kings of England to press, not only sailors and soldiers, but also artificers of all kinds, as well as musicians, goldsmiths, and embroiderers into their service. They likewise naturalized foreigners by their own authority. Philip de Comines, after describing the disorders that reigned in the governments of France, Germany, and Italy, and the cruel oppressions under which the people of all these countries groaned, concludes in this manner: "In my opinion, of all the states in the world that I know, England is the country where the commonwealth is best governed, and the people least oppressed."

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May the inhabitants of this island ever enjoy this most desirable of all distinctions!

Some excellent laws for the regulation and encouragement of trade were made, in the reign of Edward IV. who was himself one of the greatest merchants in Europe, and paid great attention to commerce. The statutes of Richard III. were the first that were expressed in the English language, all former ones having been either in Latin or French, which were not understood by the great body of the people, nor even by many of the legislators. These were also the first printed statutes of England.

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## CHAP. IV.

### LITERATURE.

**T**HE unsettled state of Britain, France, and some other countries, torn by the most furious factions, and kept in continual agitation by wars and revolutions, was very unfavourable to the progress of literature. For the wars of those times were not carried on by standing armies, as at present, while the rest of the people pursue their several occupations in tranquillity; but persons of all ranks, and even the clergy, were called into the field.

We meet with frequent complaints to parliament, that learning was very little esteemed. All the most valuable livings in the church were bestowed on illiterate men, or foreigners, by papal influence, while the best scholars in the kingdom were left to languish in indigence and obscurity, nay, were sometimes driven to the necessity of begging their bread from door to door, recommended to charity by the chancellors of the universities in which they had studied. Two of these learned mendicants we are told, came to the castle of

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a certain nobleman, who, understanding from their credentials that they had a taste for poetry, commanded his servants to take them to a draw-well, and after putting each of them into a bucket, to let them down alternately into the water, till they should make a couplet of verses on the buckets. After they had endured this discipline for a considerable time, to the great entertainment of the baron and his company, they made their verses, and obtained their liberty.

On the other hand, those who had powerful friends, or abundance of money, thought ever so ignorant and profligate, seldom failed of preferment. "I knew a certain illiterate idiot," says a judicious doctor of the 15th century, "the son of a mad knight, who, for being the companion, or rather the fool of the sons of a great family of the royal blood, was made archdeacon of Oxford before he was eighteen years of age; and soon after obtained two rich rectories and twelve prebends. I asked him one day what he thought of learning. As for learning, said he, I despise it. I have better livings than any of you great doctors, and I believe as much as any of you."

One of the most obvious defects in all the authors of this period, is a total want of taste. The art of criticism seems to have been quite neglected, and the generality of writers appear to have had no idea of purity of style, or propriety of sentiment. When they attempted to be pathetic or sublime, they always ran into the most extravagant bombast.

## CHAP. V.

### THE ARTS.

THE style of sacred architecture, commonly called the *gothic*, continued to be gradually improved, and in the course of this period was brought to the highest

highest perfection. Of this lofty, bold, and perfect style of building, several specimens remain entire, which are still beheld with pleasure and admiration. Of this kind are the chapel of King's college at Cambridge, the chapel of St. George at Windsor, the divinity school at Oxford, and the college church in Edinburgh.

The changes introduced into the art of war, by the invention of gunpowder, were very slow. The martial adventurers of those times were not fond of relinquishing the arms to which they had been accustomed, and it was difficult to find instruments to manage and direct an agent so impetuous as gunpowder. Some of their cannons were exceedingly large, and others very small. Some discharged balls of 500 pounds weight, and required fifty horses to draw them, and others were not much heavier than a musket. Many of the cannon balls were made of stone. In 1419, Henry V. gave a commission to John South, clerk of the ordnance, and John Bennet, mason in Maidstone, to press a sufficient number of masons to make 7000 cannon balls, in the quarries of Maidstone-heath. It is a curious and well-attested fact, that the art of discharging red-hot balls from cannons was known and practised early in this period. When an English army, commanded by the duke of Gloucester, besieged Cherburg, in 1418, the besieged discharged red-hot balls of iron from their cannon into the English camp, to burn the huts in which the soldiers were lodged.

Though great guns were now used both in the attack and defence of places, no alterations were yet made in constructing and fortifying such places. The prodigious thickness and solidity of the walls of the Anglo-Norman castles, made them appear sufficiently strong to resist any force with which they could be assaulted. The truth is, that the people of England, in this period, were much more employed in beating  
down

down than in building. Many large, strong, and magnificent castles were demolished or dismantled during those desolating civil wars between the houses of York and Lancaster, but very few were built. For at the same time that these castles were destroyed, their noble proprietors, who might have rebuilt them, were either killed or ruined.

During this period, the excellent art of printing, which hath contributed so much to dispel that darkness in which the world was involved, and to diffuse the light of every species of knowledge, was invented on the continent, and introduced into this island. Laurentius Coster, keeper of the cathedral of Haerlem, conceived the first idea of typography, and printed several small books in that city, with wooden types tied together with threads. As this art was likely to be very profitable, Laurentius kept the secret with great care, and wished to transmit it to his family. But this design did not succeed. For about the time of his death, one of his workmen made his escape from Haerlem, carrying with him some of his master's types, and retired to Mentz, where he began to print with wooden types, being encouraged and supplied with money by John Fust, a wealthy citizen. His assistant, John Gutenberg, afterwards invented metal-types, and set them in frames; which was so great an improvement, that the city of Mentz claimed the honour of being the place where printing was invented. The art was carried to perfection by Peter Schoeffer, who invented the mode of casting the types in matrices. Frederic Corfellis began to print in Oxford, in 1468, with wooden types; but William Caxton, a mercer of London, claims the honour of being the first, who introduced into England the art of printing with fusile types, in 1474.

## CHAP. VI.

## BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES.

**T**HOMAS *Walsingham*, a monk of St. Alban's, was unquestionably the best of our historians, during this period. His narrative is more circumstantial, and satisfactory, than that of the other annalists of those times. He relates, indeed, many ridiculous stories of visions, miracles, and prodigies; but this was the fault of the age rather than of the man.

*John Whethamstede*, abbot of St. Alban's, wrote a chronicle of 20 years in this period, which contains many original papers, and gives a very full account of some events, particularly of the two battles of St. Alban's. The most remarkable circumstance in the personal history of this writer, is his longevity. He was ordained a priest in 1382, and died in 1464, at the advanced age of 105, having been 82 years in priest's orders.

The history of Henry V. was written by an Italian, who took the name of *Titus Livius*. Not meeting with proper encouragement in his own country, he came into England and put himself under the protection of Humphrey duke of Gloucester, who made him his poet-laureat, and persuaded him to write the history of the late king, his brother. In his style, he was a professed, but very unsuccessful, imitator of the great Roman historian whose name he assumed.

All the above mentioned histories were written in Latin;—but *Robert Fabian*, a merchant and alderman of London, wrote a chronicle of England and France, called, *The Concordance of Stories*, in the English of his age, which is very intelligible. This work is valuable for its perspicuity, and for many particulars relating to the city of London.

Though the inns of court and chancery, were crowd-



ed with students of law in this period, sir Thomas Littleton, and sir John Fortescue, were the only gentlemen of that profession, who made a distinguished figure as authors.

*Sir Thomas Littleton*, after receiving a liberal education was entered of the Inner Temple. His abilities as a lawyer procured him from Henry VI. the place of steward of the court, and Edward IV. appointed him one of the judges of the court of common pleas. He died in 1481, and was interred in the cathedral of Worcester. He left three sons, who all became eminent in the law. It was for the use of one of them that he wrote his celebrated *Treatise on Tenures*, or titles by which all estates were anciently held in England. His third son Thomas was knighted by Henry VII. for apprehending Lambert Simnel.

*Sir John Fortescue* was the great ornament of his honourable profession, and one of the most learned and best men of the age in which he flourished. Being appointed chief justice of the king's bench, by Henry VI. he steadily adhered to that monarch, in all his troubles. His most famous work, "*De Laudibus Legum Angliæ*," yet remains an everlasting monument of his abilities, and affection for his country. The best edition of this book is that of 1741. He died about 1465, in the 90th year of his age.

*William Caxton*, the first English printer, at the age of 15, was put apprentice to Mr. Robert Large, a mercer, and afterwards mayor of London. On the death of his master, who left him a considerable legacy, he went abroad, as agent to the mercer's company.

In 1468, a marriage being concluded between lady Margaret of York, sister to Henry VI. and the duke of Burgundy, Caxton appears to have been of the lady's retinue, when she arrived at the duke's court, at Bruges. Here he acquired a knowledge of the newly-discovered art of printing, and the first book he printed was the

*Recuvelle*

*Recuwell* of the *History of Troy*, translated by himself from the French, in 1471. But the first book printed in England was the *Game of Chess*, dated in 1474, for a fair copy of which, the earl of Pembroke presented Mr. Granger with a purse of 40 guineas. He died in 1491. The first printing-press was set up in Illip's chapel, Westminster abbey, under the patronage of the abbot.

James I. of Scotland was one of the most learned men of the age in which he lived. This ingenious and amiable prince fell into the hands of the enemies of his country, when he was flying from the snares of his ambitious uncle, who governed his dominions, and was suspected of designs against his life. Henry V. of England knew the value of the prize he had obtained, and kept it with the most anxious care. King James was 13 years of age when he lost his liberty, and was kept in close confinement till he was about twenty-six. In this melancholy situation, so unsuitable to his age and rank, books were his chief companions, and study his greatest pleasure. Having received a good education in early youth, under the direction of Wardlaw, bishop of St. Andrew's, by his future intense application, he became an universal scholar, an excellent poet, and an exquisite musician. He invented a new kind of music, plaintive and melancholy, but at the same time so sweet and soothing, that it hath given pleasure to millions in every succeeding age. Three of his poems are still extant, namely, *Christ's Kirk of the Green*, *Peebles to the Play*, and the *King's Quair*, which afford sufficient evidence, that the genius of this royal poet was equally fitted for the gayest or the gravest strains.

## CHAP. VII.

## COMMERCE, AND MARITIME AFFAIRS.

**T**HOUGH the English, in this period, were much engaged in war, and consequently could not carry on trade with the same ease and safety as in more peaceable times, the circle of their commerce was rather enlarged than contracted. Foreign trade was not then conducted, as it is at present. Merchants did not usually bring their goods to the ports, where they were to be finally disposed of, but to certain emporia, called staple towns, in which they met with customers from the countries where their goods were wanted, and with the commodities they wished to purchase for importation. This seems to have been owing to the imperfect state of navigation, which made long voyages tedious, and to the number of pirates, which made them dangerous. Merchants, therefore, of distant countries, divided the fatigue and danger, and met each other half-way. Bruges in Flanders was the great emporium of Europe in this period, to which the merchants of the south and north conveyed their goods for sale; and so great was their resort to it from the Mediterranean and the Baltic, that 150 ships were seen to arrive at its harbour of Sluys in one day.

The heroic Henry V. was as victorious by sea as by land, and in his reign the fleets of England rode triumphant on the narrow seas. None of the kings of England before him had any ships that were private property. At his first invasion of France, he had two large and beautiful ships, with purple sails, the one called the *King's Chamber*, the other his *Hall*. Edward IV. paid great attention to mercantile and maritime affairs, and sometimes collected very great fleets. The reign of Richard III. was so short and turbulent

turbulent, that he had little opportunity of shewing his attention to the dominion of the sea. It is, however, certain, that if he had guarded the narrow seas with greater care, he might have prevented the landing of his rival, the earl of Richmond, and preserved both his life and his crown.

Some attempts were now made to build ships of greater burden than those of the former period, in imitation of the carracks of Venice and Genoa, which were often seen in the British harbour. But these attempts were very few, as they are mentioned by our historians with expressions of admiration. A gentleman of Hull obtained various privileges and immunities from Henry VI. "*because he had built a ship as large as a carrack;*" and James Kennedy, the patriotic bishop of St. Andrew's, is as much celebrated for building a ship of uncommon magnitude, called the *Bishop's Barge*, as for building and endowing a college.

The new coins of this period were nobles and angels, worth 19s. and 14s. of our present money. They were much admired both at home and abroad, for their purity and beauty.—In the first parliament of James III. of Scotland, an act was made for coining copper-money, "*for the use and support of the king's subjects, and to be given as alms to the poor.*"

## CHAP. VIII.

### MANNERS.

**C**HIVALRY, one of the most remarkable peculiarities in the manners of the middle ages, began to decline in the 15th century. Our kings and nobles were then so much engaged in real combats, that they could not pay equal attention to the representations of them in tilts and tournaments.

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The bravery and martial order of both the British nations never appeared more conspicuous than in this period, particularly in the reign of Henry V. The English under that heroic prince seemed to be invincible, and fought with so much courage and success, that, towards the end of his reign, they had a probable prospect of making a complete conquest of France. The Scots were much admired for intrepidity in their own defence, and for the seasonable succours which they sent to their ancient allies, in their greatest distress, when they were on the brink of ruin, and forsaken by all the world.

The hospitality of all ranks, but particularly of the great and opulent, was now very remarkable. The castles of the powerful barons were capacious palaces, daily crowded with their numerous retainers, who were always welcome to their plentiful tables. "Neville, earl of Warwick," says Stow, "was ever held in great favor by the commons of the land, on account of his hospitality in all places wherever he went; and when he came to London, he kept such an house, that six oxen were eaten at a breakfast, and every tavern was full of his meat." The earls of Douglas in Scotland, before the fall of that great family, rivalled, or rather exceeded their sovereigns in pomp and profuse hospitality. But to this manner of living, it is highly probable, these great chieftains were prompted, not so much by the innate generosity of their tempers, as by a desire of increasing the number and attachment of their retainers, on which, in those turbulent times, their dignity, and even their safety depended. Though these retainers did not constantly reside in the families of their lords, they wore their liveries and badges, feasted in their halls, swelled their retinues on all great solemnities, attended them on their journies, and followed them into the field of battle. Some powerful chieftains had so great a number of these retainers at their

their command, that they set the laws at defiance, were formidable to their sovereigns, and terrible to their fellow-subjects.

The entertainments of the barons were conducted with much formal pomp and stateliness, but not with equal delicacy and cleanliness. The lord of the mansion sat in state, in his great chamber, at the head of his long clumsy oaken board, and his guests were seated on each side, on long benches, according to their rank. The table was loaded with capacious pewter dishes of meat, venison, poultry, sea-fowls, wild-fowls, game, and fish, dressed in different ways according to the fashion of the times. The sideboards were plentifully furnished with ale, beer, and wines, which were handed to the company, in pewter and wooden cups, by the grooms, yeomen, and waiters of the chamber, ranged in regular order. As they sat down to table at ten o'clock in the morning, and did not rise from it till one, three of the best hours of the day were consumed in gormandizing.

It was now become the custom in great families to have four meals a-day, viz. breakfasts, dinners, suppers, and *liveries*, the last of which was a collation of cakes and mulled wine in their bed-chambers, just before they went to rest. As our ancestors were still early risers, they breakfasted at seven, dined at ten, supped at four, and had their liveries between eight and nine. But though their morning repast was early, their appetites seem to have been sufficiently keen. An earl and his countess had for breakfast, "two loaves of bread, a quart of beer, a quart of wine, two pieces of salt fish, six baconed herrings, four white herrings, or a dish of sproits."\* It is remarkable, that shopkeepers, mechanics, and labourers, breakfasted at eight, dined at noon, and supped at six, which were later hours

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\* Northumberland Family-book.

hours than those of the nobility. So different are the customs of one age from those of another.

But in the course of a few centuries what wonderful alterations are produced! If Henry V. were now to rise from the dead, and appear in the streets of London, mounted on his war-horse, and clothed in complete armour, what astonishment would he excite in the admiring multitude! How much would he be surprised at every object around him! If he were conducted to St. Paul's, he would neither know the church, nor understand the service. In short, he would suppose himself to be in a city, and among a people, he had never seen.

The English were remarkable in this period, among the nations of Europe, for the absurd practice of swearing in conversation. The count of Luxemburg, accompanied by the earls of Warwick and Stafford, visited the Maid of Orleans in her prison at Rouen, where she was chained to the floor, and loaded with irons. The count, who had sold her to the English, pretended he had come to treat with her about her ransom. Viewing him with just resentment and disdain, she cried, "*Begone!* You have neither the inclination nor the power to ransom me." Then turning her eyes towards the two earls, she said, "I know that you English are determined to put me to death, and imagine, that after I am dead, you will conquer France. But though there were an hundred thousand of your *swearing countrymen* in France, they will never conquer that kingdom." A contemporary historian, who had frequently conversed with Henry VI. mentions it as a commendable singularity in his character, that he did not swear in common conversation, but reprobated his ministers, and officers of state for so odious an habit, now almost universally reprobated, and quite banished from every polite company.

## CHAP. IX.

## INCIDENTS AND CURIOUS PARTICULARS.

**I**N the reign of Henry VI. we have the first instance of debt contracted upon parliamentary security. The commencement of this pernicious practice deserves to be noted, as it is more likely to become pernicious, the more a nation advances in opulence and credit. The ruinous effects of it are now become too apparent, and threaten the very existence of the nation.

Playing-cards were invented, about the end of the fourteenth century, by a painter in Paris, for the amusement of that unhappy prince, Charles VI. in his lucid intervals. They were originally very different in their appearance from what they are at present, being gilded, and illuminated, which required no little skill and genius, as well as labour. The price of one pack was no less than 18s. 8d. a very considerable sum in those times. This is the reason that playing-cards were little known or used, for many years after they were invented.

During this period, the number of judges in the courts at Westminster was not fixed, as, in the reign of Henry VI. they were sometimes six, seven, or eight judges, in the court of common pleas. The ancient salaries of these judges were very small. The chief justices of the king's bench and common pleas had each of them only 40l. a year, and the other judges 30l. till Henry VI. by letters-patent, granted to the former 160l. and to the latter 100l. Besides these salaries, every judge had a certain quantity of silk, linen cloth, and furs, for his summer and winter robes, out of the royal wardrobe, or an equivalent in money. The annual salary of the attorney-general was only 10l. equivalent to 150l. at present. When a judge was admitted



ted into his office, he took a solemn oath, "that he would not receive any fee, pension, gift, reward, or bribe of any man having a suit or plea before him, except meat and drink, which should be of no great value."

In 1454, the air-pump was invented by Otto Guericke, a German. The same year, the university of Glasgow, in Scotland, was founded, and that of Aberdeen, about 20 years afterwards.

## BOOK VI.

## CHAP. I.

MILITARY HISTORY FROM THE ACCESSION OF  
HENRY VII. IN 1485, TO THE ACCESSION OF  
EDWARD VI. IN 1547.

**H**ENRY VII. the first prince of the house of Tudor, ascended the throne of England, in consequence of the victory at Bosworth, and the death of Richard III. His title was confirmed by the parliament, his merit was known, and his marriage with the princess Elizabeth, eldest daughter of Edward IV. united the jarring claims of the houses of York and Lancaster, and seemed to give universal satisfaction to the nation. He had therefore every reason to promise himself peace and security.

But Henry, though in many respects a prudent and politic prince, had unhappily imbibed a violent antipathy against the adherents of the house of York, which neither time nor experience could efface. Instead of embracing the present favourable opportunity of abolishing party distinction, by bestowing his smile indiscriminately on the friends of both families, he carried to the throne all the partialities that belong to the head of a faction. To exalt the Lancastrian party, and depress the retainers of the house of York, were still the favourite ideas of his mind.

When his marriage was celebrated at London, it inspired more universal joy, than either his first entry or his coronation. Henry remarked with much displeasure this general favour to the house of York. The suspicions which arose from it, not only disturbed the

the public tranquillity during his whole reign, but was the cause of much uneasiness to his amiable consort, and poisoned all his domestic enjoyments.

He confined in the Tower Edward Plantagenet, earl of Warwick, son of the duke of Clarence. This unhappy prince had been formerly detained, in a like confinement, at Sheriff-Hutton, in Yorkshire, by the jealousy of his uncle Richard. A comparison was drawn between Henry and that tyrant; and as the tower was the place where Edward's children had been murdered; a fate not more gentle was feared for Warwick. While the compassion of the nation was thus turned towards youth and innocence, exposed to oppression, a report was spread, that Warwick had made his escape. A general joy communicated itself from face to face, and many seemed desirous to join him. Such a favourable opportunity was not neglected by the enemies of Henry's government.

One Richard Simon, a priest of Oxford, and a zealous partizan of the house of York, attempted to gratify the popular wish by holding up an impostor to the nation. For this purpose he cast his eyes upon Lambert Simnel, a baker's son, who being endowed with understanding beyond his years, and address above his condition, seemed well calculated to personate a prince of royal extraction. This youth, who was instructed to assume the name and character of the earl of Warwick, soon appeared so perfect in so many particulars, that the queen-dowager was supposed to have given him a lesson.

But Simon being sensible, that the imposture would not bear a close inspection, thought proper to open the first public scene of it in Ireland, as that island was zealously attached to the house of York.

When this intelligence was conveyed to the king, it reduced him to some perplexity. Among other measures to oppose the effects of it, he ordered Warwick

to

to be taken from the tower, and after being led in procession through the streets of London, to be exposed to the view of the people at St. Paul's. But this expedient proved effectual only in England. For Simnel being joined by the earl of Lincoln and Lord Lovel, and supported by a body of German troops, furnished by Margaret, widow of Charles the Bold, duke of Burgundy, and sister of Edward IV. landed at Foudrey, in Lancashire, and advanced towards Coventry.

Henry, who was not ignorant of these movements, levied troops in different parts of the kingdom, and put them under the command of the duke of Bedford. The rebels had entertained hopes that the disaffected counties in the north would rise in their favour; but the people in general, averse to join Irish and German invaders, either remained in tranquillity, or gave assistance to the royal army. The earl of Lincoln, therefore, who commanded the rebels, finding no hopes but in victory, was determined to bring the matter to a speedy decision. The hostile armies met at Stoke, in the county of Nottingham, where a bloody battle was fought, in which lord Lincoln lost his life; and as Lovel was never heard of more, he was believed to have undergone the same fate. Simnel and his tutor Simon were taken prisoners. The latter, being a priest, was not tried at law, but only committed to close custody. And Simnel, who was too contemptible to be an object either of apprehension or resentment to Henry, was made a scullion in the king's kitchen, and afterwards advanced to the rank of a falconer.

After encountering and surmounting many difficulties both in France and Ireland, Henry was attacked in the possession of his throne by an adversary, who gave him a great deal of trouble. The duchess of Burgundy, full of resentment for the depression of her family and partizans, and rather irritated than discouraged

raged by her ill success in Simnel's enterprise, propagated a report, by means of her emissaries, that her nephew, Richard Plantagenet, duke of York, had escaped from the tower, when his elder brother was murdered, and still lay somewhere concealed. Having proceeded thus far, she got one Perkin Warbeck, the son of a renegado Jew, to personate him. This young man was born in London, during the time of Edward IV. and from the resemblance he bore to that monarch, may have owed his birth to one of Edward's amorous adventures. This similitude, together with a natural versatility, and sagacity of genius, aided by a courtly address, rendered him a proper subject for the purpose of the duchess.

Ireland, which still retained its attachment to the house of York, was likewise chosen as a proper place for Perkin's appearance. He therefore landed at Corke, and assuming the name of Richard Plantagenet, drew to him many partizans. The king of France now sent for him, and received him with all the marks of regard due to the duke of York. From thence he went to the court of the duchess of Burgundy, who, after a pretended scrutiny into his pretensions, embraced him as her nephew, and on all occasions honoured him with the appellation of *The White Rose of England*. Not only the populace gave credit to Perkin's pretensions, but men of the highest birth and quality, disgusted at Henry's government, began to turn their eyes towards the new claimant, and a correspondence was settled between the malcontents in Flanders and those in England.

The king was informed of all these particulars, but, agreeable to his character, proceeded deliberately in counteracting the projects of his enemies. Having at length, by means of spies, discovered the whole plan of the confederacy, together with the pedigree, adventures, life, and conversation, of the pretended duke of York,

York, he published the latter part of the story for the satisfaction of the nation.

As Perkin now found that the king's authority daily gained ground among the people, and that his own pretensions were becoming obsolete, he resolved to attempt something, which might revive the hopes of his partizans. He accordingly endeavoured to land in Kent, with 600 men, when he was repulsed. Some time after, he went to Scotland, and presented himself to James IV. who, seduced by the story of his birth and adventures, gave him in marriage his own relation, lady Catharine Gordon, daughter of the earl of Huntley, eminent for her virtue as well as her beauty. And, as there subsisted at this time a great jealousy between the courts of England and Scotland, he determined to support his pretended claim, and invaded England with a considerable force. Finding, however, that Perkin's pretensions were but little regarded, and that a formidable army was on its march to oppose him, he retreated into his own country.

The chief concern of Henry was to draw advantage from this irruption, by the pretence it might afford him to levy impositions on his own subjects. He summoned a parliament, who, upon his representations, readily granted him a large subsidy. But he found it not so easy to collect the money from his subjects. The people, who were well acquainted with the immense treasures he had amassed, could ill brook the new impositions, raised on every slight occasion. The inhabitants of Cornwall, excited by one Michael Joseph, a farrier of Bodmin, and Thomas Flamme, a lawyer, armed themselves with such weapons as country people are usually possessed of, and marched towards London, in order to deliver a petition to the king for a redress of grievances. When they reached Wells, they were joined by lord Audley, a nobleman of an ancient family, and popular in his department ; but vain, ambitious,

and

and restless in his temper. Proud of the countenance of so considerable a person, they marched on, till they arrived at Eltham, near London, and there encamped. But having received no reinforcements on the road, they were easily overcome by a body of forces sent against them under the command of the earl of Oxford. Lord Audley, Flamincoc, and Joseph, their leaders, were taken and executed.

During these commotions in England, Perkin remained in Scotland; but James finding he should never enjoy a solid peace with Henry, while that pretender was in his dominions, privately desired him to depart the kingdom. By the kind manner, however, in which he entertained and dismissed him, it is evident that he believed him to be the real duke of York, especially as he refused to deliver up his person, which he might have done with honour, had he thought him an impostor. Perkin, after various unfortunate adventures fell into Henry's hands, and was shut up in the Tower of London, from whence he endeavoured to escape along with the innocent earl of Warwick, for which Perkin was hanged, and the earl beheaded.

In 1499, the king had the satisfaction of completing a marriage between his son Arthur prince of Wales, and the infanta Catherine, fourth daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain. The young prince, however, in the course of a few months, sickened and died, much regretted by the nation. Henry, desirous of continuing his alliance with Spain, and also unwilling to restore Catherine's dowry, obliged his second son, Henry, to be contracted to the infanta. His eldest daughter, the princess Margaret, was soon after sent with a magnificent train to Scotland, where she was married to James IV.

The situation of the king's affairs, both at home and abroad, was now, in every respect, very fortunate. Uncontrouled, therefore, by opposition of any kind, he

he gave full scope to his natural propensity; and avarice, which had ever been his ruling passion, broke through all restraints of shame and justice. He had found two ministers, Empson and Dudley, perfectly qualified to second his rapacious and tyrannical inclinations, and to prey upon his defenceless people. Arbitrary decrees were issued without trial or jury, and the laws were turned into a system of oppression.

In 1508, Henry entertained some intentions of marriage, first with the queen dowager of Naples, relict of Ferdinand, and afterwards with the duchess-dowager of Savoy, daughter of the emperor Maximilian. But the decline of his health put an end to all such thoughts, and he began to cast his eyes towards that future existence, which the iniquities and severities of his reign rendered a very dismal prospect to him. To allay the terrors under which he laboured, he endeavoured, by distributing alms, and founding religious houses, to make atonement for his crimes, and to purchase, by the sacrifice of part of his ill-gotten treasures, a reconciliation with his offended Maker. Remorse seized him, at intervals, for the abuse of his authority by Empson and Dudley; but not sufficient to make him stop the rapacious hand of those oppressors.

Death, however, by its nearer approaches, impressed new terrors upon him, when he ordered, by a general clause in his will, that restitution should be made to all whom he had injured. He A. D. 1509. died of a consumption, at his favourite palace of Richmond, in the 52nd year of his age, and the 24th of his reign. His capacity was excellent, but somewhat contracted by the narrowness of his heart. He possessed insinuation and address, but never employed these talents, except where some great point of interest was to be gained; and he remains a singular instance of a man placed in a high station, and possessed



essed of talents for great affairs, in whom avarice was more predominant than ambition. Even among private persons, this passion is often nothing but a species of ambition, and is chiefly incited by the prospect of that respect and distinction, which riches procure.

The accession of Henry VIII. now eighteen years of age, gave universal satisfaction. The beauty and vigour of his person, accompanied with dexterity in every manly exercise, added to a knowledge of literature far beyond his age, gave promising hopes of his becoming the idol of the people. And as the contending titles of York and Lancaster were now at last fully united in his person, men justly expected from a prince, obnoxious to no party, that impartiality of administration which had long been unknown in England.

The young king being naturally of a lavish disposition, the great treasures amassed by his father were gradually dissipated in pleasure and amusements. During the intermission of his festivity, he chiefly applied himself to music and literature, in the former of which he was a great proficient.

As the frank and careless disposition of the king led him to dissipate his father's wealth, so it rendered him negligent in protecting the instruments of his extortion. All those informers, therefore, who had so long exercised an unbounded tyranny over the nation, met with their deserts, being condemned to the pillory, where many of them lost their lives by the violence of the populace. Empson and Dudley, who were most obnoxious to the popular hatred, were sent to the Tower, and soon after executed.

Henry soon got a minister who complied with all his inclinations, and flattered him in every scheme to which his impetuous temper was inclined. This was Thomas Wolsey, dean of Lincoln, now almoner to the king, and fast advancing through Henry's favour, towards that unrivalled grandeur, which he afterwards attained

attained. He was the son of a butcher at Ipswich, but having received a learned education, and being endowed with an excellent capacity, he was employed by Henry VII. in some secret negotiations, in which he acquitted himself so much to his satisfaction, that he obtained his favour. Some time after the accession of Henry VIII. Fox, bishop of Winchester cast his eyes upon him, as a proper person to supplant, in the royal favour, the earl of Surry, of whose superiority he was jealous. For this purpose, he introduced Wolsey to the young king, who in a little time gained so much on him, that he supplanted both. Being admitted into Henry's parties of pleasure, he took the lead in every gaiety; nor were his years, which were near forty, nor his character as a clergyman, any restraint upon him. Henry having found a person so agreeable to him, advanced Wolsey from being the companion of his pleasures, to be a member of his council, and from being a member of his council, to be his sole and absolute minister. By this rapid advancement and uncontrouled authority, his character and genius had full opportunity to display themselves.

Encouraged by Wolsey, and impelled by his natural temper, Henry made the most expensive preparations by sea and land to invade France, when he sailed for Calais, attended by the duke of Buckingham, and other noblemen. The town of Teroüane, A. D. 1513. situated on the frontiers of Picardy, being besieged, the French endeavoured to throw succours into the place. Henry, as soon as he received intelligence of the approach of the French cavalry, sent some troops to oppose them; when, notwithstanding they chiefly consisted of gentlemen who had behaved with great gallantry in many desperate actions, they precipitately fled upon the approach of the English. They were pursued, and many officers of distinction made prisoners, among whom was the famous chevalier Bayard;

Bayard; and from this hasty flight of the French, the action was called, the *battle of spurs*.

After so considerable an advantage, the king, who was at the head of above 50,000 men, might have made incursions to the the gates of Paris. Scarcely ever was the French monarchy in greater danger, or less in a condition to defend itself against the powerful armies which assailed it on every side. But Lewis was extricated from his present difficulties by the blunders of his enemies; and Henry, after taking Tournay, returned to England, much elated with his success. But when the advantages of his situation are compared with his progress, and his expence with his acquisitions, this campaign, so much boasted of, was, in reality, both ruinous and inglorious to him.

The Scots having now made an incursion into England, the earl of Surry marched to oppose them, and a battle ensued at Flodden-field, wherein the king of Scotland, and most of his chief nobles were slain. But instead of taking advantage of this defeat, and reducing the kingdom to his subjection, as he might have done, Henry generously granted a peace to his sister Margaret, who was appointed regent during the minority of her son. He likewise made peace with Lewis, king of France, and bestowed on him his sister Mary in marriage.

Henry became a candidate for the German empire, during its vacancy, but soon resigned his pretensions to Francis I. of France, and Charles of Austria, king of Spain, who was elected in 1519. His conduct, in the long and bloody wars between those princes, was directed by Wolsey's views upon the popedom, which he hoped to gain by the interest of Charles; but finding himself twice deceived, he persuaded his master to declare for Francis, who had been taken prisoner at the battle of Pavia. Henry, however, continued to be the dupe of both parties, and to pay great part of their expences,

expences, till at last he was obliged to impose heavy burthens on his subjects.

Henry still continuing to be a great enemy to the Reformation, was the champion of the popes and of the Romish church. He wrote a book against Luther, "*Of the Seven Sacraments*," for which the pope gave him and his successors the title of *Defender of the Faith*. In the year 1527, however, he began to have some scruples with regard to the validity of his marriage with Catherine of Arragon, his brother's widow. Anna Boleyn, having been lately appointed maid of honour to the queen, had, from being frequently seen by Henry, and conversing with him, acquired an ascendancy over his affections. This young lady, whose grandeur and misfortunes have rendered her so celebrated, was daughter of sir Thomas Boleyn, and allied to the principal nobility in the kingdom. She had been carried over to France, in her early youth, by the king's sister, when that princess espoused Lewis the twelfth, and had continued there a considerable time after her death. As Henry still supported an intercourse of civility and friendship with his queen, he had opportunities, in the visits he paid her, to observe the charms of Anna Boleyn. Finding the accomplishments of her mind in no degree inferior to her exterior graces, he resolved to raise her to the throne, as her virtue and modesty prevented all hopes of gratifying his passions in any other manner. Having therefore divorced Catherine, he married the object of his affections, and was soon after excommunicated by the pope.

Enraged at this treatment, Henry abolished the papal authority in England, refused to pay to the see of Rome his annual tribute, ordered the dissolution of monasteries, and obliged the clergy, as well as others, to acknowledge him head of the church, when those who refused were either banished or put to death. Among these last were, the learned sir Thomas More, lord chancellor.

chancellor of England, and Fisher, bishop of Rochester. Cardinal Wolsey too having, on this occasion, incurred the king's displeasure, was deprived of his immense power and possessions, and died of a broken heart. "Had I but served my God," said he, "as diligently as I have served my prince, he would not have forsaken me in the days of my grey hairs."

Out of the produce of the monastic revenues, which amounted to 160,000*l*. Henry erected six new bishopricks, viz. Westminster, Oxford, Peterborough, Bristol, Chester, and Gloucester, of which five still subsist.

Anna Boleyn, however, soon lost the king's favour. His affection for her, no longer kept alive by difficulties, languished from satiety. He had besides become enamoured of Jane, daughter of Sir John Seymour, a young lady of singular beauty and merit. Queen Anna's enemies took advantage of this change, and did every thing in their power to widen the breach. She was accused of holding a criminal correspondence with several gentlemen of the king's chamber, and being tried by a jury of peers, though there was no proof of criminality, but that her indiscretions proceeded from a pardonable gaiety of character, she was found guilty, and condemned to lose her head. The supposed partakers of her guilt were likewise executed.

Henry's impatience to gratify this new passion made him forget all regard to decency, and he married Jane Seymour the very day after Anna Boleyn's execution. Having soon after called a parliament, he made a speech wherein he informed them, that notwithstanding the misfortunes attending his two former marriages, he had been induced, for the good of his people, to venture on the third. Being entirely at Henry's devotion, they ratified his divorce from Anna Boleyn, which he had procured before her death.

Jane Seymour, the most beloved of his wives, dying in child-bed of prince Edward, Henry began to think  
of

of a new marriage. Having turned his thoughts towards several princesses, he was persuaded by Cromwell to espouse Anne of Cleves, whose father, the duke of that name, had great interest among the Lutheran princes, with whom he wished to form an alliance. A flattering likeness by Hans Holbein had given Henry a favourable opinion of the person of this princess, about which he was very particular; but the first sight of her inspired him with great disgust. His aversion to her increasing every day, prompted him at once to seek the dissolution of a marriage so odious to him, and to involve his minister in ruin, who had been the innocent author of it. Accordingly he obtained a divorce, and suffered her to reside in England on a pension of 3000*l.* a year.

His fifth wife was Catharine Howard, niece to the duke of Norfolk, whom he caused to be beheaded, because he had conceived a violent passion for Catharine Parr, a young widow of great beauty, whom he married, and who narrowly escaped being brought to the stake for her religious opinions, which favoured the reformation. Henry's cruelty increased with his years, and was now exercised promiscuously on Protestants and Catholics. He put to death the brave earl of Surry, though no crime was proved against him; and his father, the duke of Norfolk, must have suffered the next day, had he not been saved by the king's own death. His health had long been in a declining state; but for several days, all near him plainly saw his end approaching. He was become so froward, that no one durst inform him of his condition. At last, Sir Anthony Denny ventured to disclose to him the fatal secret, and exhorted him to prepare for the fate that awaited him. Henry expressed his resignation, and directed that Cranmer should be sent for; but before the prelate arrived he was speechless, though he still seemed to retain his senses. Cranmer desired him to give

give some sign of his dying in the faith of Christ. He squeezed the prelate's hand, and immediately expired, in the 56th year of his age, after a reign of thirty-seven years and nine months. A few weeks before his demise, he made his will, by which he left his crown, first to prince Edward, then to the lady Mary, and next to the lady Elizabeth

Though a catalogue of this monarch's vices would comprehend many of the worst qualities incident to human nature, yet he was not altogether destitute of virtues. He was open, gallant, liberal, and capable, at least, of a temporary friendship and attachment. Notwithstanding his arbitrary administration, he was so far from being hated by his subjects, that he possessed in some degree, even to the last, their love and affection. His exterior qualities were advantageous, and fit to captivate the multitude. His magnificence and personal bravery rendered him illustrious in vulgar eyes. And it may be said with truth, that the English in that age were so thoroughly subdued, that, like eastern slaves, they were inclined to admire those acts of violence and tyranny, which were exercised over themselves, and at their own expence.

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## CHAP. II.

### ECCLESIASTICAL HISTORY.

**D**URING the reign of Henry VII. the disciples of Wickliffe were not, in general, so ambitious of the crown of martyrdom, as they had formerly been. When they were accused of heresy, and threatened with the cruel death inflicted on heretics, many of them recanted, and burnt their faggot, to preserve themselves.

Though the authority of the pope, and the tenets, and ceremonies of the church of Rome, seemed to be firmly

firmly established in England, at the accession of Henry VIII. the foundations on which they rested were in some degree undermined, and the fabric was not so firm as it appeared. The revival of learning, and the invention of the art of printing, made books more attainable, so that knowledge became more general, than it had been in former times. This also gave an opportunity to persons of different opinions to communicate their sentiments to the public, which produced the reformation, one of the greatest events in history. A concurrence of incidents contributed to forward this great revolution.

Pope Leo, by his generous and enterprising temper, had much exhausted his treasury, and was obliged to employ every invention, which might yield money, in order to support his projects, pleasures, and liberalities. For this purpose he published the sale of a general indulgence; the several branches of which were bestowed on particular persons, who were entitled to levy the imposition. The Augustine friars had usually been employed in Saxony to preach the indulgences; and, from this trust, derived both profit and consideration. But the person to whom they were farmed, being apprehensive lest practice had taught them to secrete the money, gave this occupation to the Dominicans. The monks, in order to prove themselves worthy of the distinction conferred on them, exaggerated the benefits of indulgences, which were to free the purchaser from the pains of purgatory, and advanced doctrines relative to them altogether new. To add to the scandal, the collectors were said to have lived the most licentious lives.

Martin Luther, an Augustine friar, professor in the university of Wittemberg, resenting the affront put upon his order, began to preach against these abuses, and even to question the authority of the pope. As he enlarged his reading, in order to support his tenets, he discovered some new abuse or error in the church.



of Rome ; and finding his opinions greedily hearkened to, he promulgated them by writing, discourse, sermons, and conferences.

The rumour of these innovations soon reached England, and as there were still in the kingdom great numbers of Wickliffites, whose principles resembled those of Luther, the new doctrines secretly gained many partizans among the laity. But Henry, who had been educated in a strict attachment to the church of Rome, and bore a particular prejudice against Luther, because in his writings, he had spoken with contempt of Thomas Aquinas, his favourite author, opposed his authority against the new tenets. He procured, indeed, an act of parliament confirming to him the ecclesiastical supremacy, which he had claimed about three years before. Having fixed himself head of the English and Irish churches, instead of the pope, whose jurisdiction he abolished, Henry likewise took proper methods to diminish the influence of the clergy. The monasteries were suppressed, and their revenues applied to other purposes. But the doctrines and ceremonies of Rome were, in great measure, retained. Hence Papists and Protestants were sometimes executed together, the former for denying the king's supremacy, and the latter for not believing transubstantiation, or the like.

Cromwell, earl of Essex, though not conscious of guilt, nor apprehensive of danger, being seized and committed to the tower, was attainted by an act of parliament for heresy and high treason, without being heard, and beheaded on Tower-hill. This great man was hardly laid in his grave, when three of the most learned and zealous preachers of the reformed doctrine were burnt in Smithfield. Three papists, who had been found guilty of treason for denying the king's supremacy, were hanged, drawn, and quartered, at the same time and place ; which made a foreigner, who was a spectator of this horrid scene, cry out, " Good God !

God! how unhappy are the people of this country, who are hanged for being papists, or burnt for being enemies to popery."

Henry laboured the point of uniformity with uncommon ardour, and seems to have determined that none of his subjects should think, speak, or act, in matters of religion, but as he directed them. Not contented with dictating a system of doctrines which they were to believe, and of the ceremonies they were to practise in the church, he published a manual of prayers, which he strictly commanded all his subjects to use in their private devotions, prohibiting the use of any other prayers in their closets. This was called *the king's Primer*. Even the most trivial things, relating to religion, were considered as of the greatest consequence. Some of the people, for example, kept St. Mark's day as a fast, and others of them kept it as a feast. He was much offended at this, and published a royal injunction to all his loving subjects, to *eat flesh* on St. Mark's day.

### CHAP. III.

#### CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.

**A** GENERAL peace being re-established, soon after the accession of Henry VII. the prospect of happier days seemed to open on the nation. But, as the people were wearied out by the calamities they had undergone, and longed only for repose, they abhorred even the idea of resistance. The nobility were left defenceless, and abandoned to the mercy of the sovereign, while the commons, finding themselves bereft of those who had hitherto been their leaders, were more than ever afraid to form an opposition.

So many noblemen had been killed, executed, and attainted, in the cruel contest between the houses of  
York

York and Lancaster, that only 28 temporal peers were summoned to the first parliament of Henry VII. This diminution of the number of peers diminished their weight in the scale of government; and as that was one object of the policy of Henry VII. he raised very few to the peerage.

The time was now arrived, when England must submit, in its turn, to the fate of other nations of Europe. All those barriers, which it had raised for the defence of its liberty, seemed to have only been able to postpone the inevitable effects of power. During the reign of Henry VIII. the parliament was so little jealous of its privileges (which indeed were at that time scarcely worth preserving,) that there is an instance of one Strode, who, because he had introduced into the lower house some bill regarding tin, was severely treated by the stannery courts in Cornwall. Henry's fines were imposed on him, and upon his refusal to pay, he was thrown into a dungeon, loaded with irons, and used in such a manner as brought his life in danger. Yet all the notice which the parliament took of this enormity, even in such a paltry court, was to enact "that no man could afterwards be questioned for his conduct in parliament." This prohibition, however, must be supposed to extend only to the inferior courts. For the king, the privy-council, and the star chamber, were scarcely bound by any law.

There is a bill of tonnage, which shews what uncertain ideas the parliament had formed both of their own privileges and of the rights of the sovereign. This duty had been voted to every king since Henry IV. during the term of his own life only. Henry VIII. however, had been allowed to levy it six years without any law; and though there had been four parliaments assembled during that time, no attention had been given either to grant it to him regularly, or restrain him from levying it. At last the parliament resolved to  
give

give him that supply ; but even in this concession, they plainly show themselves at a loss to determine whether they grant it, or whether he has a right of himself to levy it.

The revenues of the crown, at this time, were very great. The treasure found in the coffers of Henry VII. was equivalent to 8,000,000*l.* of our money at present. All that wealth, the ordinary and extraordinary revenues of the crown, the tenths and first fruits from the clergy, which had been formerly paid to the pope, together with the inestimable spoils of all the religious houses in England, whose value, almost exceeded the bounds of calculation, came into the possession of Henry VIII. Had these revenues been well managed, they might have made the crown independent of the country, and enabled the king to have reigned for a long time without a parliament. But, fortunately for the people of England, Henry dissipated all those treasures, died poor, and transmitted the crown to his son and successor, as dependant on the people for their supplies in parliament, as at any former period. The wanton profusion of princes is always hurtful to themselves, but may prove beneficial to their subjects, by preventing greater evils. If Henry had been more frugal, he would have been more dangerous.

With regard to the courts at Westminster, in this monarch's reign ; the laws were there basely perverted, and the most shocking acts of oppression were perpetrated, under the pretence of punishing offences. On what slender evidence were the amiable queen Anna Boleyn, and her accomplished brother lord Rochford, found guilty of high treason, condemned, and executed? On what trivial pretences did the convocation pronounce a sentence of divorce between Henry and his queen, Anne of Cleves, which was confirmed by parliament? How many noble persons were found  
guilty

guilty of high treason without any trial, by acts of attainder, though they earnestly intreated to be tried before they were condemned? Was not this a gross violation of the first and plainest principles of law and justice? Who after this will hesitate to pronounce Henry VIII. a tyrant, and his parliaments the servile executioners of his imperious and cruel mandates?

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## CHAP. IV.

### LITERATURE.

**T**HE morning of that auspicious day which succeeded the long night of ignorance, in which almost all Europe had been involved from the fall of the western empire, had dawned on Italy, and some other parts of the continent, before it reached this little sequestered world of Britain. While learning was reviving in some other countries, it was languishing and declining in this island; and the period that immediately preceded the present, was here one of the darkest and most illiterate. In every former period, some extraordinary men arose, such as the venerable Bede, Alfred the great, Roger Bacon, and doctor Wickliffe, who by the force of their genius and application, dissipated, in some degree, the gloom with which they were surrounded, and rendered their names immortal. But in the fifteenth century there were hardly any who deserved a permanent reputation by their writings.

Our present period, however, presents us with a more agreeable prospect. A better taste and greater esteem for literature were introduced. The countenance given to letters by Henry VIII. and his ministers contributed to render learning fashionable in England. Erasmus speaks with great satisfaction of the general regard paid by the nobility and gentry to men of knowledge.

No.

No province of literature was cultivated with so much care and success by the revivers of learning in this period, as philology, or the accurate knowledge of languages, particularly of the Latin and Greek classics. The neglect into which the works of the philosophers, poets, and historians of Greece and Rome had fallen, was one great cause of the decline of learning, and of the bad taste and barbarism of the middle ages. The revivers of learning, therefore, acted wisely in beginning its revival, by removing one of the great causes of its decline. By acquiring a correct and critical knowledge of the language, style, and manner of those excellent writers, they obtained two great advantages. They had access to all the stores of wisdom and eloquence, which their writings contained, and to all the pleasure, which their perusal could afford; and by imitating such beautiful models, they acquired the art of communicating their own thoughts to the world in a perspicuous, elegant, and pleasing manner. In this art some of the revivers of learning, both in Britain and on the continent, succeeded to admiration, and wrote in Latin with a classical purity not unbecoming the Augustan age. The success and example of those eminent men brought the study of the Latin language into fashion. To speak and to write pure and classical Latin, was considered as a valuable, and even a polite accomplishment, to which persons of high rank and of both sexes aspired. In order to assist youth in the acquisition of this accomplishment, the greatest scholars of the age, as Erasmus, Linacre, and many others, did not disdain to spend their time in writing rudiments, grammars, vocabularies, colloquies, and other books. The haughty monarch Henry VIII. and his no less haughty minister cardinal Wolsey, stooped to employ their pens in writing instructions to youth, in the study of this favourite language. The king wrote an introduction to Grammar, and the cardinal composed

fed a ſystem of inſtructions to be obſerved by the maſters in the ſchool he founded at Ipſwich, his native town. The cardinal had been a ſchoolmaſter, and was well qualified for giving theſe inſtructions, which are equally ſenſible and particular. James IV. of Scotland was an excellent Latin claſſic; and his letters are written with greater purity and elegance than thoſe of any other prince in Europe. In a word, the Roman claſſics were now ſtudied with ſo much diligence, and the capacity of imitating their ſtyle and manner was ſo much valued, that the ſixteenth century may very properly be called *Seculum Latinum*, the Latin age.

The reſtorers of learning found much greater difficulty in acquiring the knowledge of the Greek language, and in perſuading others that the knowledge of it was either neceſſary or uſeful. That copious and beautiful language, in which ſo many of the philoſophers, poets, hiſtorians, and orators of antiquity had written, was almoſt quite unknown in Britain in the beginning of this period. The celebrated Eraſmus of Rotterdam, the moſt zealous and ſucceſſful reſtorer of learning, came into England in 1497, and went to Oxford with a deſign to teach Greek, but met with little encouragement. Many both of the ſecular and regular clergy declaimed againſt him in the ſchools, and even in the pulpit, with great bitterneſs. They railed particularly againſt his Greek New Teſtament, as a moſt impious and dangerous book. He continued, however, to teach there a conſiderable time, encouraged by a few ingenious men, who gladly received his inſtructions, and afterwards communicated them to others.

Eraſmus beſtows high encomiums on cardinal Wolſey as a patron of letters and learned men. "This extraordinary man," ſays he, "had a genius and taſte for learning, in which he had made great proficiency in

in his youth, and for which he retained a regard in his highest elevation. Politer learning, as yet struggling with the patrons of the ancient ignorance, he upheld by his favour, defended by his authority, adorned by his splendour, and cherished by his kindness. He invited all the most learned professors by his noble salaries. In furnishing libraries with all kinds of authors of good learning, he contended with Ptolemy Philadelphus himself, who was more famous for this than for his kingdom. He recalled the three learned languages, without which all learning is lame." When the cardinal visited Oxford in 1518, he founded seven lectures, and chose the most learned men he could procure to read them. He at the same time intimated his intention of doing much greater things for the honour of the university and the advancement of learning, which he executed in part, and, to his unspeakable sorrow, was prevented from executing fully, by his unexpected fall.

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## CHAP. V.

### THE ARTS.

**F**ROM the accession of the Tudors, and the extinction of those factions that distracted England, a period of comparative tranquillity commences. Such repose being propitious to arts and commerce, the country recovered from the calamities of internal discord, and continued afterwards in a state of slow, but progressive improvement.

Agriculture and gardening, during the distraction of the civil wars, had been much neglected, but were now prosecuted with such success, that to the present period is ascribed the introduction of various fruits and vegetables into England. The fruit garden was enriched by large accessions from foreign countries, and  
apricots



apricots, melons, and currants were brought from Zante for the first time, in the sixteenth century. In the beginning of the reign of Henry VIII. carrots, turnips, and other edible roots were imported from Holland and Flanders. Queen Catharine, when she wanted a *sallad*, was obliged to dispatch a messenger thither on purpose. The introduction of hops from the Netherlands was somewhat earlier, and the culture of them was much encouraged. Flax was attempted, but without success, though enforced by law. Legislature at that time endeavoured to execute, by means of penalties, those national improvements, which have since been fostered and cherished by bounties.

To the passion of the age, and the predilection of the monarch for splendid tournaments, may be attributed the attention bestowed on a breed of horses, of a strength and nature adapted to the weight of the complicated panoply, with which the knight and his courser were invested. Statutes of a singular nature were enacted, allotting for deer-parks a certain proportion of breeding mares, and enjoining the prelates and nobles, as well as those whose *wives wore velvet bonnets*, to have stallions of a certain size for their saddle. The legal standard was fifteen hands in horses, and thirteen in mares.

There is a certain perfection in art to which human genius may aspire with success, beyond which improvement degenerates into false taste and fantastic refinement. The rude simplicity of *Saxon architecture* was supplanted by the magnificence of the *ornamental gothic*. But magnificence itself is at last exhausted, and it terminated, during the present period, in a style, which some, in allusion to literature, denominate the *florid*. The superb chapel, which Henry VII. erected in Westminster, exhausted every ornament that taste could dictate, or piety accumulate, and exhibits a splendid

a splendid specimen of gothic architecture in its latest period. Grecian architecture was then introduced; but its orders, till a purer taste prevailed, being intermixed with those of the gothic, produced a discordant and barbarous assemblage.

After the invention of cannon, the utility of castles ceased. The king and nobility solicited better accommodation, and superior elegance. Hampton court is a standing monument of Wolsey's magnificence. The mansions of gentlemen, however, were still sordid, and the huts of the peasantry poor and wretched. The former were generally thatched buildings composed of timber, or where wood was scarce, of large posts inserted in the earth, filled up in the interstices with rubbish, plaistered within, and covered on the outside with coarse clay. The latter were slight frames, prepared in the forests at a small expence, and, when erected, covered with mud.

Italy was the seat of the *fine arts* in the sixteenth century. Bramante drew the plan of St. Peter's church at Rome. Michael Angelo erected a cupola upon that magnificent edifice, the boldness and taste of which surprise the spectator. That sublime artist built superb churches, sumptuous palaces, and laid out the most enchanting gardens. He also gave to marble with his chissel, symmetry, and beauty, and revived the works of Praxiteles and Phidias. Four Italian schools were celebrated for painting. Michael Angelo shone at Florence. As perfect in the art of painting, as in those of architecture and sculpture, he gave the canvas a strength of expression, a liveliness and enthusiasm, peculiar to himself. His scholars imbibed his spirit, and did honour to so great a master. Titian shone in the Venetian school, and Corregio in that of Lombardy. But Raphael made the Roman school still more famous. His paintings shew a correctness of design, a richness of order, a justness of expression, and an elevation of  
ideas,

ideas, not to be found in the works of any other painter. He bore away the palm, and perhaps he remains without an equal in his art. He formed several great men, who became his rivals. Flanders had some good artists. John of Leyden, and Van Horley, are names, not unknown, in the history of the fine arts. Holben, the scholar of Albert Durer, made himself celebrated in Germany. Being invited to London, he enriched that city with many excellent pieces of painting. Henry VIII. was his patron and protector. His pencil, among its other employments, portrayed the beauties of Henry's wives, or of those whom he intended to wed; and to procure a just report of the latter, he was twice dispatched to the continent as the secret emissary of the king's love. But he was not always a faithful emissary. His pencil, if impartial to the duchess of Milan, imparted unmerited charms to Anne of Cleves, and ensnared his master into a marriage.

Holben is said to have precipitated down stairs a peer who had intruded on him when he was drawing a lady's portrait for the king. The painter rushed to Henry and told his tale, which was received with a frown; and he was ordered to the royal closet. Next came the peer loudly complaining, and misrepresenting the story. But Henry, after reprimanding him for his want of candor, thus addressed him. "*It is me, not Holben, whom you have insulted. I can make seven peasants into as many lords; but I cannot make one Holben. Begone! and remember that I protect him.*" The behaviour of Henry, Mr. Walpole observes, is the most probable part of the anecdote. There are in Kensington palace eighty-nine fine drawings of this master. Before he set out to England, the people of Basil, enchanted with a fly which Holben had drawn on a portrait so naturally, that many attempted to brush it off, endeavoured in vain to detain him.

Poetry

Poetry was cultivated by the courtiers of Henry VIII. as a vehicle of gallantry. The brave but unfortunate Surry had taste to relish the Italian poets, and judgment to reject their affected, though splendid conceits. His sonnets breathe the unaffected dictates of nature and love. Tenderness predominates in the sentiment, whilst ease and elegance distinguish the language. From these sonnets, the earliest specimens of a polished diction and refined sensibility, succeeding poets discovered the capacity and secret powers of the English tongue. In poetical refinement, the elder Wyatt co-operated with Surry.

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## CHAP. VI.

### BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES.

**T**HOUGH *Erasmus* was not a native of Britain, he resided several years in England at different times, and by his teaching, conversation, and writings, contributed as much, if not more, than any other man, to inspire a taste for the study of the Roman and Greek classics, which was the first stage in the restoration of learning. He was born at Rotterdam, in 1467, and, having received a liberal education, made very great progress in his studies. His masters predicted, *that he would some time prove the envy and wonder of all Germany.* After taking priest's orders, he came over to England, where he met with the greatest encouragement from Henry VIII. sir Thomas More, and all the learned Englishmen of those days. He was one of the most correct and elegant Latin writers among the moderns. The New Testament was first printed in Greek, at Basil, under his inspection, in the year 1515. He died in 1536, and was buried in the cathedral of Basil, where his tomb yet remains. The inhabitants of  
Rotterdam

Rotterdam still shew with veneration the house where he was born, and there is a statue erected to his memory in the open part of the city. His works were printed at Leyden, in 1706, in ten volumes, folio, under the direction of John Le Clerc.

*Sir Thomas More*, lord chancellor of England, the great friend and admirer of Erasmus, was, next to him, one of the most ingenious and learned men of his age, and one of the chief restorers of learning. He was born in 1480, and being the only son of sir John More, one of the judges of the king's bench, great pains were taken in his education. He gave early and striking proofs of an uncommon genius, and before he was nineteen years of age he had acquired a critical knowledge of the Latin and Greek languages, and had studied rhetoric and several other branches of learning. When he was about twenty he became a kind of devotee, fasted frequently, wore a hair-shirt, slept upon boards, and had a great inclination to enter into the Franciscan order. From this however he was diverted by his friends; and in obedience to the commands of his father, whom he never disobeyed, he applied to the study of the law. When he was called to the bar, he soon became conspicuous by the eloquence of his pleadings, and was retained in almost every cause of importance. At the age of twenty-one he made a distinguished figure as a member of the house of commons, in opposition to the court, when opposition was more dangerous than it hath been in latter times. At the accession of Henry VIII. Mr. More's reputation and business were very great. But in the midst of the greatest hurry of business, in which the whole day was occupied, he stole time from his sleep to pursue his favourite studies, to correspond with many learned men at home and abroad, and to compose his *Utopia*, which was universally admired, and translated into several languages. Being appointed treasurer of the  
exchequer,

exchequer, he was employed in several embassies, in which he acquitted himself with ability and success. When Henry VIII. became intimately acquainted with him, he was so charmed with his learning and the pleasantry of his conversation, that he sent frequently for him to entertain and divert him. This was very disagreeable to sir Thomas, as it consumed too much of his time; and, in order to get rid of this royal interruption, he made use of a stratagem, which few would have employed. He affected to be very dull and unentertaining several times successively, and was no more sent for; sacrificing the reputation of a *wit* and the conversation of a *king* to save *his time*.

At last he brought down upon himself all the vengeance of that haughty and overbearing monarch, by opposing his divorce from Catharine of Arragon. This, however, not giving fair opportunity for open violence, several other accusations were brought against him, but without success, till the act of supremacy was passed in 1534, when the oath enjoined by that act being tendered to him about a month after, he refused to take it, and was committed prisoner to the tower of London. After he had lain 15 months in prison, he was arraigned, tried, and found guilty of denying the king's supremacy, and condemned to be hanged, drawn, and quartered, and his head to be stuck on a pole upon London bridge. But this sentence, on account of the high office he had borne, was, all but the last particular, changed by the king into beheading; which was executed on tower hill, on the 5th of July, 1585.

*William Grocyn*, born at Bristol in 1442, was a great master of the Greek and Latin languages, and introduced a better pronunciation of the latter than had been known before in this country. He was professor of Greek at Oxford, where he taught Erasmus, with whom he contracted an intimate friendship, and kept him

him a considerable time in his house. He died at Maidstone, in the 80th year of his age.

Doctor *Thomas Linacre*, born in 1460, was physician to both the Henrys and the most elegant scholar of his age. He founded two lectures of physic at Oxford, and one at Cambridge. He contributed very much to rescue the healing arts from the wretched state in which he found them, by his strenuous and successful efforts for the establishment of the royal college of physicians in London, of which he was the first president, and to which he gave his own house for their place of meeting. When he was advanced in life he applied to the study of theology, was ordained a priest, and obtained several preferments in the church. He died in 1524. His virtues were at least equal to his abilities. In a word, he was a benefactor to mankind, an honour to literature, and an ornament to human nature. Should such men ever be forgotten!

Doctor *John Collet* was one of those ingenious men, who contributed by their united labours to the revival of learning in Britain. He was the first born of the eleven sons and eleven daughters of Sir Henry Collet, twice lord mayor of London, and was born in 1466. In 1505 he obtained the deanery of St. Paul's, where, by his preaching and other labours, he greatly advanced the reformation. Having a large estate without any near relations (for numerous as his family were, they were all dead,) he resolved, in the midst of life and health, to consecrate the whole of it to some standing and perpetual benefaction. And this he performed, by founding and endowing St. Paul's school in London, of which he appointed the famous William Lily first master. He died of the Plague in 1519.

*William Lily* was another of those ingenious and industrious men, who were the instruments of reviving learning in Britain, by introducing the study of the Greek and Latin classics. He was born at Odiham  
in

in Hampshire in 1466, and died of the plague in 1522. When dean Collet had built and endowed his school at St. Paul's, he appointed his friend Mr. Lily its first master in 1512, who presided in it above twelve years with great reputation and success. Among other things he composed a grammar for the use of that school, which is well known. In this, however, he was assisted by Erasmus, doctor Collet, and Thomas Robinson, three of the best linguists in Europe; and it was published with a preface composed by cardinal Wolley, recommending it to universal use. Of such importance did the education of youth in classical learning appear to the greatest men of that age.

*Gavin Douglas*, a native of Scotland, eminent for his poetical talents, was born in 1474, and died in 1521. After finishing his academical studies he went to Italy, where he acquired a taste for poetry. In 1515 he was made bishop of Dunkeld, and the rich abbey of Aberbrothick was afterwards added to his bishoprick. Mr. Warton styles him, "one of the distinguished luminaries that marked the restoration of letters in Scotland at the commencement of the 16th century." His principal works are, *The palace of Honour*, and a translation of *Virgil's Æneid* into Scottish heroics.

*William Dunbar*, another famous Scottish poet, contemporary with Douglas, celebrated the marriage of James IV. with Margaret of England, in his *Thistle and Rose*, a very happy allegory, in which the vulgar topics of an epithalamium are judiciously avoided. His poems were published, with notes, by Sir David Dalrymple, and some of the best of them are to be found in the late collections of Pinkerton and Banatyne.

*Hector Boethius*, or *Boece*, was a native of Dundee, in the shire of Angus, and born in 1470. After he had finished a course of education in the university of St. Andrews, he went to Paris, where he studied several years in the college of Montacute, in which



he was advanced to a professor's chair. When king's college, Aberdeen, was founded by bishop Elphinstone, he sent for Boece to be the first principal. On the death of that bishop he wrote his life, to which he added the lives of his predecessors. He next undertook the history of Scotland, which is certainly a valuable and well-written work. Both these books are in Latin, of which language he was a great master.

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## CHAP. VII.

### COMMERCE.

**T**HE accession of Henry VII. to the throne of England was an event favourable to commerce, as it put an end to a long and ruinous civil war, which had thrown every thing into confusion, and inflamed the minds of one half of the people with the most violent hatred against the other. This king's love of money naturally led him to encourage commerce, which increased his customs. But if we may judge by most of the laws enacted during his reign, trade and industry were rather hurt than promoted by the care and attention given to them. Severe laws were made against taking interest for money, which was then denominated usury. Even the profits of exchange were prohibited as favouring of usury, which the superstition of the age zealously proscribed. All evasive contracts, by which profits could be made from the loan of money, were also carefully guarded against. These laws must have been very hurtful to trade. We may observe, however, to the praise of this king, that sometimes, in order to promote commerce, he lent to merchants sums of money without interest, when he knew that their stock was not sufficient for those enterprises which they had in view.

It

It was prohibited to export horses; as if that exportation did not encourage the breed, and render them more plentiful in the kingdom. In order to promote archery, no bows were to be sold at a higher price than 6s. and 4d. of our present money. The only effect of this regulation must be, either that the people would be supplied with bad bows, or none at all. Prices were also fixed to woollen cloth, caps and hats; and the wages of labourers were regulated by law. It is evident that these matters should be left free, in the common course of business and commerce.

In 1492 Christopher Columbus, a Genoese, set out from Spain on his memorable voyage for the discovery of the western world; and a few years after Vasquez de Gama, a Portuguese, passed the cape of Good Hope, and opened a new passage to the East Indies. These great events were attended with important consequences to all the nations of Europe, even to such as were not immediately concerned in those naval enterprises. By the enlargement of commerce and navigation, industry and the arts were every where increased. It was by accident only that Henry VII. had not a considerable share in those great naval discoveries, by which the present age was so much distinguished. Columbus, after meeting with many repulses from the courts of Portugal and Spain, sent his brother Bartholomew to London, in order to explain his projects to Henry, and crave his protection for the execution of them. The king invited him over to England; but his brother being taken by pirates, was detained in his voyage, and Columbus mean while having obtained the countenance of Isabella, was supplied with a small fleet, and happily executed his enterprise. Henry, not discouraged by this disappointment, fitted out Sebastian Cabot, a Venetian, settled A. D. 1498. in Bristol, and sent him westward, in search of new countries. Cabot, after discovering America,

rica, returned to England without making any conquest or settlement. Elliot, and other merchants in Bristol made a like attempt in 1502. The king expended fourteen thousand pounds in building one ship, called the *Great Harry*. She was properly speaking, the first ship in the English navy. Before this period, when the prince wanted a fleet, he had no other expedient than hiring or pressing ships from the merchants.

During the reign of Henry VIII. the foreign commerce of England was chiefly confined to the Netherlands. The inhabitants of the low countries bought the English commodities, and distributed them into other parts of Europe.

Foreign artificers, in general, much surpassed the English in dexterity, industry, and frugality: Hence the violent animosity which the latter, on many occasions, expressed against any of the former who were settled in England. Irritated for want of customers, and moved by the seditious errors of A. D. 1517. one Dr. Bele, and the intrigues of Lincoln, a broker, they raised an insurrection. The apprentices, and others of the poorer sort, in London, began by breaking open the prisons, where some persons were confined for insulting foreigners. They next proceeded to the house of Meutas, a Frenchman, where they committed great disorders, killed some of his servants, and plundered his goods. Neither the mayor, nor sir Thomas More, under sheriff, though much respected in the city, could appease them. They also threatened cardinal Wolsey, who thought it necessary to fortify his house, and put himself on his guard. Tired at last with these disorders, they dispersed, when many of them were seized by the earls of Shrewsbury and Surrey. A proclamation was issued, that women should not meet together to babble and talk, and that men should keep their wives in their houses. Next day the duke of Norfolk came

came into the city at the head of thirteen hundred armed men, and made enquiry into the tumult. Beke and Lincoln, and several others, were sent to the Tower, and condemned for treason. Lincoln and thirteen more were executed. The other criminals, to the number of 400, being brought before the king, with ropes about their necks, fell on their knees, and cried for mercy. Henry knew at that time how to pardon, and dismissed them without farther punishment.

So great was the number of foreign artificers in the city, that 15,000 Flemings were obliged to leave it, by an order of council, when Henry became jealous of their favour for queen Catharine. The king declared, in an edict of the star-chamber, that the foreigners starved the natives, and obliged them, from idleness to have recourse to theft, murder, and other enormities. He also asserted that the vast multitude of foreigners raised the price of grain and bread. And to prevent an increase of the evil, all foreign artificers were prohibited from having above two foreigners in their houses.

During this reign, about 2000 persons were annually executed in England, for theft and robbery; a greater number than are now executed for those crimes, in the space of twenty years. Must there not then have been a great improvement in morals since the reign of Henry VIII? And this improvement has been chiefly owing to the increase of industry and of the arts, which have given maintenance, and what is almost of equal importance, occupation, to the lower classes.

The silver coins of Henry VII. were shillings or pence, groats, pennies, and farthings. His gold coins were sovereigns, rials, and nobles. They were all of standard purity. He possessed too much money, and loved it too well, to sink its value by too great a quantity of baser metals. Henry VIII. after squandering his father's treasures, issued coins, which had only

only four ounces of silver and eight ounces of alloy in the pound weight. This shameful debasement of the money was one of the most imprudent, dishonourable, and pernicious measures of his reign. It was productive of innumerable inconveniences in business, and the restoration of it to its standard purity was found to be a work of great difficulty.

## CHAP. VIII.

### MANNERS.

**T**HE best criterion of civilized society is the free intercourse, and reciprocal confidence between parents and their offspring. Domestic manners, however, in this period, were severe and formal. A haughty reserve was affected by the old, and abject deference exacted from the young. Sons, when arrived at manhood, stood uncovered, and silent in their father's presence ; and daughters, though women were placed like statues at the cupboard, and not permitted to sit down till their mother departed.

Though those times were magnificent, most of the comforts and conveniences of modern life were unknown. Queen Margaret, on her marriage with James IV. made her public entry into Edinburgh, riding on a pillion behind the king. The halls and chambers of the wealthy were surrounded with hangings of arras, and furnished with a cupboard, long tables, forms, a chair, and a few joint-stools. Their beds were apparently comfortable, and often elegant ; but people of inferior condition slept on a mat, or a straw pallet, under a rug, with a log for a pillow.

The large and fantastical head-dresses of the ladies, in the former age, were now superseded by coifs and velvet

velvet bonnets. Among gentlemen, long hair was fashionable through Europe, till the emperor Charles devoted his locks for his health; and in England, Henry, a tyrant even in taste, gave efficacy to the fashion by a peremptory order for his attendants and courtiers to poll their heads. The same spirit induced him, by sumptuary laws, to regulate the inordinate dress of his subjects. Cloth of gold or tissue was reserved for dukes and marquises, and that of a purple colour, for the royal family. Silks and velvets were restricted to commoners of wealth and distinction, and embroidery was forbidden to all beneath the degree of an earl. Cuffs for the sleeves, and ruffs for the neck, were the invention of this period. Pockets, a convenience unknown to the ancients, are perhaps the latest real improvement on dress; but instead of pockets, a loose pouch seems to have been sometimes suspended from the girdle.

Their cookery was distinguished by the profusion of hot spices, with which every dish was seasoned. At entertainments, the rank of the guests was discriminated, by their situation above or below the saltcellar, which was placed invariably in the middle of the table, and the usher was instructed to displace such as might seat themselves above their betters. The chief servants always attended above the saltcellar, beneath which the table was crowded with poor dependents, whom the guests despised, and the servants neglected. Churchmen affected peculiar ceremony, and the abbot of St. Alban's dined with greater state than the nobility. His table was elevated 15 steps above the hall, and in serving his dinner, the monks, at every fifth step, performed a hymn. He dined alone at the middle of his table, to the ends of which guests of distinguished rank were admitted; and the monks, after attending the abbot, were served with equal respect by the novices. At Wolsey's entertainment of the French  
ambassadors,

ambassadors, the company was summoned by trumpet to supper, and the courses were announced by a prelude of music.

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## CHAP. IX.

### INCIDENTS AND CURIOUS PARTICULARS.

**I**N 1485, Henry VII. on the day of his coronation, established 50 yeomen of the guards, the first standing army.

In 1500, there happened so great a plague in England, that it obliged the king and court to remove to Calais, and carried off upwards of 30,000 people in London.

In 1529, the name of Protestant took its rise from the reformed protesting against the church of Rome, at the diet of spires in Germany.

In 1544, good lands were let at one shilling per acre, being only a twentieth part of the usual rent at present. Commodities, however, were not cheap in proportion, owing, in great measure, to the bad husbandry of that age.

In 1546, a law was made for fixing the interest of money at 10 per cent. This was the first legal interest known in England. Formerly, all laws of that nature were regarded as usurious. The preamble of this very law treats the interest of money as illegal and criminal; and the prejudices still remained so strong, that the law permitting interest was repealed in the following reign.

## BOOK VII.

## CHAP. I.

MILITARY HISTORY FROM THE DEATH OF HENRY VIII. TO THAT OF QUEEN ELIZABETH, IN 1603.

**E**DWARD VI. being only nine years old at the time of his father's death, the regency was settled in the person of his uncle, the earl of Hertford, afterwards the protector and duke of Somerset, a declared friend of the reformation. Much of the popish leaven, however, still remained in the council, which was embroiled at once with France and Scotland.

As soon as the state was brought to some degree of composure, the protector marched into Scotland with an army of 13,000 men, in order to execute, if possible, the project of uniting the two kingdoms by a marriage between Edward and Mary Stewart, their young queen; an union which Henry had recommended with his dying breath. But the queen dowager's attachment to France and the catholic religion, rendering the negociation ineffectual, a desperate battle was fought near Mulsleburgh, in which 10,000 of the Scots were killed.

The reformation was not effected without many public disturbances. The common people, during the reigns of Henry and Edward, being deprived of the great relief they had from abbeys and religious houses, often took up arms, but were as often suppressed by the government. Several of these insurrections were crushed in this reign. At last the protector, who was upon the whole a weak, but conscientious man, was



first driven from the helm of state, and then lost his head upon a scaffold. Dudley, who was created duke of Northumberland, then took the lead, and persuaded Edward, who, though young, meant extremely well, and was a sincere protestant, into many impolitic measures.

The reformation, however, through the zeal of Cranmer, and others, made rapid progress. In some cases, particularly with regard to the princess Mary, they lost sight of that moderation which the reformers had before so strongly recommended; and some sanguinary executions, on account of religion, took place. Edward's youth excuses him from blame, while his charitable endowments, as Bridewell, St. Thomas's hospitals, and several schools which still exist and flourish, shew the goodness of his heart. He died of a consumption in 1553, in the 16th year of his age, and the 7th of his reign.

Edward, on his death-bed, from his zeal for religion, made a very unconstitutional will, excluding his sister Mary from the succession, which was claimed by lady Jane Grey, daughter to the duchess of Suffolk, younger sister of Henry VIII. This lady, though she had scarcely reached her 17th year, was a prodigy of learning and virtue; but the bulk of the English nation recognized the claim of the princess Mary, and lady Jane was beheaded. Her husband, lord Guildford Dudley, and his father, the duke of Northumberland, suffered in the same manner.

Mary being thus settled on the throne, suppressed an insurrection under Wyatt, and proceeded like a female fury, to re-establish popery. She lighted up the flames of persecution, to which she consigned the most illustrious reformers. Her husband, Philip II. king of Spain, like herself, was an unfeeling bigot; and the chief praise of her reign is, that, by the marriage articles, provision was made for the independence of the  
English

English crown. By the assistance of troops, which she sent to her husband, he gained the important battle of St. Quintin; but that victory was so ill improved, that the French, under the duke of Guise, soon after took Calais, the only Place then remaining to the English in France, and which had been held ever since the reign of Edward III. This loss, which was chiefly owing to cardinal Pole's secret connections with the French court, is said to have broken Mary's heart, who died in 1558, in the 42nd year of her age, and the 6th of her reign.

*Elizabeth* was at Hatfield when she heard of her sister's death, from whence she went to London, through crowds of people, who strove with each other in giving her the strongest testimony of their affection. This joy diffused itself through every rank. When the demise of Mary was notified to the parliament, the two houses immediately resounded with the joyful acclamations of "God save queen Elizabeth. Long and happily may she reign!"

As Elizabeth was daughter to Henry VIII. by Anne Boleyn, her title to the crown, on account of the circumstances attending her mother's marriage and death, was disputed by Mary queen of Scots, grandchild to the eldest daughter of Henry VII. and wife to the dauphin of France. But her sufferings under her bigoted sister, joined to the superiority of her genius, having taught her caution and policy, she took advantage of the divided state of Scotland, and formed a party there, by which Mary was obliged to suspend her claim.

The queen of Scots, finding her abode in France disagreeable, through the death of her husband, and the mortifications she met with from the queen-mother, returned to her native country. Mary had at this time reached her nineteenth year, when the bloom of her youth, and beauty of her person, recommended

ended by the affability of her address, the politeness of her manners, and the elegance of her genius, so attracted the affections of her subjects, that her arrival seemed to give universal satisfaction. But there was one circumstance which blasted all these promising appearances, and bereaved Mary of that great favour, which her agreeable manners and judicious deportment gave her just reason to expect. She was a papist; and the reformers, being now in power, she was continually exposed to their insolence. The helpless queen bore their contumely with benignity and patience; and, though her age, condition, and education, invited her to liberty and cheerfulness, she found herself curbed in all her amusements, by the absurd severity of these zealots.

Destitute of all force, possessing a narrow revenue, surrounded by a turbulent nobility, a bigoted people, and insolent ecclesiastics, Mary soon perceived that her only expedient for maintaining tranquillity, was to preserve a good correspondence with Elizabeth. She accordingly sent an ambassador to London, to express her desire of friendship, and, as a proof of her sincerity, offered to renounce all her present pretensions to the crown of England, provided the English queen would agree to declare her the successor to her realms. But such was the jealous character of the latter, that she would never consent to strengthen the interest and authority of any claimant, by fixing the succession. A peace, however, was concluded between these two princesses, and even a cordial friendship seemed to have been cemented between them. They made profession of the most entire affection, wrote amicable letters every week to each other, and had adopted, in all appearance, the sentiments, as well as style, of sisters. Mary's subjects and counsellors now thought it was time that some marriage should be concluded for her; and lord Darnley, son of the earl of Lenox, was the person

person in whom their opinions and wishes seemed to centre. This young nobleman was cousin-german to Mary, being the son of lady Margaret Douglas, niece to Henry VIII. and, after her, the next heir to the crown of England. As he was in his twentieth year, well shaped, and of a graceful air, he consequently appeared agreeable in the eyes of the queen, and their marriage was soon celebrated. Though Elizabeth was not displeased with this match, and endeavoured secretly to promote it, no sooner had it taken place, than she testified the greatest displeasure at it, though she could not assign a single reason for doing so. It served her as a pretext, not only for refusing to acknowledge Mary's title to the succession of England, but for encouraging the discontents and rebellion of the Scottish nobility and ecclesiastics; which now broke out afresh, as Darnley, who bore the title of king Henry, was believed to adhere to the catholic faith. But while Mary had been allured by the youth, beauty, and exterior accomplishments of her husband, she had over-looked the qualities of his mind, which in no wise corresponded with the excellence of his outside figure. Violent, fickle, insolent, ungrateful, and addicted to low pleasures, he was incapable of all true sentiments of love and tenderness. The queen, in the first effusions of her fondness, had exalted him beyond measure, but having afterwards leisure to remark his weakness and his vices, she proceeded with more reserve, till Henry, enraged at her imagined neglect, pointed his vengeance against every one whom he deemed the cause of this change in her measures and behaviour.

There was in the court a person named David Rizzio, who had lately obtained a very extraordinary degree of confidence and favour with the Scottish queen. He was the son of a Piedmontese teacher of music, and himself a musician; and having a good ear, and a tolerable voice, was retained by Mary in her service,

vice, after the departure of the ambassador from Savoy, in whose suite he had come over. Having frequent opportunities of approaching her person, and being of an insinuating address, he so far obtained her countenance, that he was consulted on all occasions, and no favours could be obtained but by his intercession. It was easy for Henry's friends to persuade him that Rizzio was the author of Mary's indifference, and even to inspire him with jealousies of a more dangerous nature. A plan was therefore agreed upon between the king and several noblemen, to put to death a man so obnoxious, not only to him, but to the whole kingdom. Henry and his friends, accordingly, one evening, entered the room where the queen was supping in private, with Rizzio, and some others of her servants; and notwithstanding the cries, menaces, and intreaties of Mary, who was in the sixth month of her pregnancy, the hated favourite was first stabbed by one of the conspirators in her presence, and then pushed into the anti-chamber, where he was dispatched with fifty-six wounds. The unhappy princess, informed of his fate, immediately dried her tears, and said, she would weep no more, but would seek for revenge.

The assassins, apprehensive of Mary's resentment, detained her prisoner in the palace; but having gained the confidence of her husband, by her persuasions and caresses, she engaged him to escape with her to Dunbar. She there collected an army, and advancing to Edinburgh, obliged the conspirators to flee into England. Her principal vengeance she reserved for Henry, against whom she now expressed the strongest proofs of displeasure.

The earl of Bothwell, a nobleman of considerable family and power in Scotland, but of profligate manners, and greatly in debt, had of late acquired the favour and entire confidence of Mary, and all her measures were directed by his advice and authority.

Reports

Reports were spread of more particular intimacies. Young Henry was reduced to such a state of desperation by these circumstances, that he left the court, and retired to Glasgow, where he was suddenly seized by an extraordinary illness, which was generally ascribed to a dose of poison. The queen took a journey to Glasgow, on purpose to visit him during his sickness, when she behaved to him with such well counterfeited tenderness, that he put himself implicitly into her hands, and attended her to Edinburgh. She lived in the palace of Holy-rood house; but as the situation of that place was low, and the concourse of people about the court was necessarily attended with noise, which might disturb him in his present infirm state of health, an apartment was fitted up for him in a solitary house, at some distance, called The Kirk of Field. Mary here continued to treat him with marks of kindness, and lay some nights in a room below his; but on the month of February, she told him, that she should pass the night in the palace, because the marriage of one of her servants was there to be celebrated in her presence. About two o'clock in the morning, the whole town was alarmed by a great noise from the king's house, which was blown up by gunpowder. As Henry's dead body was found at some distance, in a neighbouring field, without any marks either of fire, contusion, or violence, no doubt could be entertained of his being murdered; and general conjecture soon pointed towards the earl of Bothwel, the author of the crime.

Bothwel was soon after tried for the murder of the king, on the accusation of the earl of Lenox, Henry's father, when, through his own influence, and that of the queen, he was acquitted. The subsequent measures of this nobleman were equally audacious. Mary having gone to Stirling, to pay a visit to her son, he way-laid her on her return, at the head of 800 horse, and, seizing her person, carried her to Dunbar, with

an avowed design of forcing her to yield to his purpose. The queen, however, does not appear to have resented this act of audacity; for, a few days after he received a pardon for the violence committed on her person, and for all other crimes; and to complete the infamous scene, within a short time they were married, a precipitate divorce between Bothwel and his wife having been obtained for this purpose. The news of these transactions, being carried to foreign countries, filled Europe with amazement, and threw infamy, not only on the principal actors of them, but also on the whole nation.

Some attempts made by Bothwel, it is said, with the queen's consent, to get the young prince into his power, excited the most serious attention; and an association was formed for protecting the prince, and punishing the king's murderers. Armies were raised on both sides; and a battle ensuing, Mary was defeated at Carberry-hill, and being taken prisoner, was sent to the castle of Lochleven, situated on a lake of that name. Bothwel found means to make his escape to Denmark, where he was thrown into prison, lost his senses, and died miserable about ten years after.

Many schemes were proposed by the associated lords for the treatment of the captive queen. The result of these was, that they obliged her to sign an instrument, by which she resigned her crown in favour of her son, and appointed the earl of Murray regent. In consequence of this forced resignation, the young prince was proclaimed king, by the name of James VI.

The queen of Scots, now finding it impossible to remain in her own kingdom, embraced the resolution of taking shelter in England, where she had often been promised a safe and an honourable asylum. Elizabeth, however, being unfaithful to this profession of friendship, detained the unhappy prisoner 18 years, when she brought her to a sham trial, pretending that Mary aimed

aimed at the crown, and without sufficient proof of her guilt, put her to death ; an action which greatly tarnished the glories of her reign.

As to Elizabeth's affairs with Spain, which formed in fact the main business of her government, they exhibit different scenes of wonderful events, partly arising from her own masterly conduct, partly from the sagacity of her statesmen, and partly from the intrepidity of her forces by sea and land.

The same Philip, who had been the husband of her late sister, upon Elizabeth's accession to the throne, offered to marry her, but she dexterously avoided his addresses ; and by a train of skilful negotiations between her court and that of France, kept the balance of Europe so undetermined, that she had leisure to unite her people at home, and to establish an excellent internal policy. But as the king of Spain could not always be imposed upon by her arts, he made use of the immense sums which he drew from Peru and Mexico, in equipping the most formidable armament that perhaps had ever been put to sea, and a numerous army of veterans, under the prince of Parma, the best captain of that age. The most renowned nobility and princes of Italy and Spain were ambitious of sharing in the enterprise, and so elated were the Spaniards with vain hopes, that they denominated their navy *The Invincible Armada*. Lord Howard, however, and the brave sea officers under him engaged, beat, and chased this formidable fleet for several days ; and had not their ammunition fallen short, they would have obliged the whole armada to surrender at discretion. An event, however, almost equally fatal to the Spaniards, soon happened. A violent tempest overtook them after they had passed the Orkneys ; and many of the ships were driven either on the Western isles of Scotland, or on the coast of Ireland, where they were miserably wrecked, so that not one half of them returned



to Spain. Such was the miserable and dishonourable conclusion of an enterprise, which had been preparing for three years, which had exhausted the revenue and force of Spain, and which had long filled all Europe with anxiety or expectation.

The discomfiture of the armada having begotten a kind of enthusiastic passion for enterprises against the Spaniards, several expeditions were undertaken, in order to invade their territories in Europe and America, when many of their rich ships were captured. In most of these, the command was given to the earl of Essex, who by his exterior accomplishments, and real merit, was daily advancing in favour with Elizabeth. His passion for glory made him desire a continuance of the war, and he encouraged the queen in the prosecution of it. The rivalry between this nobleman and Lord Burleigh, made each insist the more strenuously on his own counsel; but as Essex's person was agreeable to the queen, as well as his advice conformable to her inclinations, the favourite seemed daily to acquire an ascendant over the minister. Had he been endowed with caution and self-command, equal to his shining qualities, he would have riveted himself in the queen's confidence. But his lofty spirit could ill submit to that implicit deference, which her temper required. Being once engaged with her in a dispute about the choice of a governor for Ireland, he was so far heated in the argument, that he entirely forgot the rules both of duty and civility, and turned his back upon her in a contemptuous manner. Her anger, naturally prompt and violent, rose at this provocation, and she gave him a box on the ear. Instead of reflecting himself, and making the submission due to her sex and station, Essex clapped his hand to his sword, and swore he would not bear such usage, even from Henry the eighth himself. The queen's partiality, however, was so prevalent, that she reinstated him in his

his former favour ; and her kindness to him even appeared to have acquired new force from this short interval of anger and resentment.

As Elizabeth was now far advanced in life, she became distrustful, peevish, and jealous. Though she undoubtedly loved the earl of Essex, she teased him by her capricious temper into the madness of taking arms, and then put him to death. Soon after she fell into a profound melancholy, which all the advantages of her high fortune, and all the glories of her prosperous reign, were unable to alleviate. This depression of mind was attributed to various causes, but the most probable was, a revival of her tenderness for Essex, occasioned by an unexpected incident.

That unfortunate nobleman had received a ring from Elizabeth, during the time of her greatest regard for him, which she desired him to keep as a pledge of her affection ; assuring him, at the same time, that into whatever disgrace he should fall, or whatever prejudices she might be induced to entertain against him, yet, if he sent her that ring, it would immediately recall her former tenderness. Essex, notwithstanding all his misfortunes, reserved this precious gift to the last extremity ; but after his trial and condemnation, he resolved to try the experiment, and committing the ring to the countess of Nottingham, requested her to deliver it to the queen. The countess was prevailed on by her husband, the mortal enemy of Essex, not to execute the commission ; and Elizabeth, who expected that her favourite would make this last appeal to her tenderness, urged by resentment and policy, signed the fatal warrant. The countess of Nottingham, upon her death-bed, revealed this secret to the queen, who, astonished at the incident, burst into a furious passion, and afterwards resigned herself over to the deepest and most incurable melancholy. She refused all sustenance. Ten days and ten nights she lay upon the carpet ;

pet ; nor could her physicians persuade her to allow herself to be put to bed, or to make trial of any remedies.

Her anxious mind, at last, had so long preyed on her frail body, that her end visibly approached ; and the council being assembled, sent three of their number to know her will with regard to her successor. She answered with a faint voice, that as she had held a regal sceptre, she desired no other than a royal successor. And being requested to answer more particularly, she named her kinsman, the king of Scotland. Her voice soon after left her ; her senses failed ; she fell into a lethargic slumber, which continued some hours ; A. D. 1603. and she expired gently, without farther struggle or convulsion, in the seventieth year of her age, and the forty-fifth of her reign. So dark a cloud overcast the evening of that day, which had shone out with such a mighty lustre in the eyes of all Europe.

Elizabeth understood the art of reigning in an eminent degree. Her wise ministers and brave warriors share the praise of her success ; but they owed their advancement to her choice, were supported by her constancy, and, with all their abilities, could never acquire an undue ascendancy over her. In her family, in her court, and in her kingdom, she remained equally mistress. The force of the tender passions was great over her, but the force of her mind was still superior. When we contemplate her as a woman, we are struck with the highest admiration of her great qualities and extensive capacity, while we also require more softness of disposition, greater lenity of temper, and some of those amiable weaknesses by which her sex is distinguished. On a throne, however, she was enabled to hide her less commendable qualities under the blaze of a magnanimous heroism.

## CHAP. II.

## ECCLESIASTICAL HISTORY.

THE reformation was much forwarded by the decease of the capricious Henry, and the accession of the amiable and virtuous Edward. It had on its side, the affection of the young king, whose education was totally in the hands of reformers, the wise counsels of Cranmer, the firm and bold arguments delivered from the pulpits of Latimer, Hooper, and other celebrated preachers, as well as the good will of the people in general. It had also an addition of strength in the eagerness for plunder which most of the old courtiers of Henry possessed. By establishing the new doctrines, these had a chance of pillaging the secular, as they had already the regular clergy. Indifferent to all religion they dreaded the return of Popery, as it must bring with it a severe account for them to settle.

Bishop Gardiner in the chapel royal, though requested not to speak on controversial subjects, warmly supported the real presence of Christ's flesh and blood in the sacrament. The effect of this ill-judged rhapsody was grossly indecent. Each party, in the church, and before the king, cried out with vehemence to support or to insult the preacher, when the impolitic orator, on his leaving the rostrum, was committed to prison. His eloquence had little effect on the prepared mind of the young monarch, who had already ordered prayers to be read in the English language.

When Mary ascended the throne, she set at liberty the bishops Gardiner, Tonstal, and Bonner, who were in confinement for adhering to the catholic cause ; and having imbibed from her mother the strongest attachment to that communion, she soon gave the nation reason to dread, not only the abolition, but the persecution of the established religion. Holgate, archbishop  
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of York, Coverdale, bishop of Exeter, Ridley of London, and Hooper of Gloucester, were thrown into prison. Nor could the merits of Cranmer, who had rendered her considerable services, secure him from her persecution. The queen soon after called a parliament, which, as all who hesitated to comply with the court religion declined taking a seat, was composed of a majority that proved obsequious to her designs. She, however, still retained the title of supreme head of the church of England; and it was generally pretended that the intention of the court was only to restore religion to the same condition in which it had been left by Henry.

Not long after the consummation of the queen's marriage with the Spanish prince, cardinal Pole, who was nearly allied to the royal family of England, arrived in London; invested with legatine powers from the pope. As soon as he had been introduced to the king and queen, he invited the parliament to reconcile themselves and the kingdom to the apostolic see. And care having been taken to distribute among them 400,000 crowns, which the emperor had sent over for that purpose, they readily agreed to the proposal. The legate then, in the name of his holiness, gave the parliament and kingdom absolution, and received them again into the bosom of the church.

The affairs of administration in matters of religion, were now chiefly conducted by bishop Gardiner and cardinal Pole. The latter was possessed of candour and moderation; but the persecuting spirit of Gardiner, being consonant with the more cruel bigotry of Mary and Philip, the laws were let loose in their full vigour against the reformed religion, and England was soon filled with scenes of horror. The persecutors began with Rogers, prebendary of St. Paul's, a man eminent for virtue and learning, who was burnt in Smithfield. Hooper, bishop of Gloucester, was sent  
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to his own diocese to be executed. Ferrar, bishop of St. David's, was likewise burnt in his own diocese. Ridley, bishop of London, and Latimer, formerly bishop of Worcester, perished together in the same flames at Oxford. It is almost impossible to enumerate all the cruelties practised upon this occasion, under the direction of Gardiner, assisted by Bonner, a man of profligate manners and brutal character. During the course of three years, it is computed that two hundred and seventy-seven persons were brought to the stake, besides those who were punished by imprisonments, fines, and confiscations. They all died with calmness and intrepidity, avowing even while their sinews were shrinking, and their flesh consuming by the flames, their entire resignation to the will of Heaven, and their triumphant joy in the cause for which they suffered.

In 1556 a further act of barbarity was exercised upon the protestants, which tended to render the government still more unpopular. Cranmer, who had been long in confinement, was now brought to punishment. Overcome by the love of life, and terrified by the prospect of those tortures which awaited him, the worthy prelate allowed, in an unguarded hour, the sentiments of nature to prevail over his resolution, and agreed to subscribe the doctrines of the papal supremacy and of the real presence. The court, however, at once perfidious and cruel, determined that this should avail him nothing; and ordered him to be immediately carried to execution. Cranmer, repenting of what he had done, there atoned for his frailty, by holding his right hand in the flames till it was entirely consumed, calling aloud several times, *This hand has offended.*

Cranmer was charitable, mild, and hospitable. His manners converted many of his foes to friends, and he never made an enemy by his conduct in private life. His palace was the general asylum of distressed literature.

ture. Bucer, Fagius, Sleidan, Peter Martyr, Alasco, and a learned Scot, named Alefs, all found maintenance and repose at Lambeth.

On the death of her sister, Elizabeth did not remain long in suspense with regard to the party she should embrace. Her education, as well as her interest, led her to favour the reformation. But, though determined in her own mind, she resolved to proceed by gradual and secure steps, and not to imitate the example of Mary, in making immediately a violent invasion on the established religion. She delayed the entire change of religion, till the meeting of the parliament, when, after her right of succession to the throne was settled, such acts were passed, as tended to the perfect establishment of the protestant religion. Having ordered that the gospels and epistles, the Lord's prayer, the apostles' creed, and the ten commandments, should be read in English in all places of worship, Elizabeth soon found how pleasing these directions appeared to the generality of her people, and particularly to the inhabitants of the metropolis. Among other tokens it was remarked, that as she went in procession under a triumphal arch erected by the city of London, she was presented, by a cherub descending from above in the character of truth, with an English copy of the bible; she received it most graciously, kissed it, and placed it in her bosom.

The translation of the bible into English was at this juncture oddly recommended to the queen by one Rainsford, a protestant, whom she had released, who implored her pity for four other prisoners, Matthew, Mark, Luke, and John. Elizabeth, not displeased at the quaint idea, smiled and told him, that she must first enquire whether *these captives* wished to be released.

During the year 1559 the oath of supremacy was tendered to the bishops of Mary's appointment, and all, except Kitchen of Landaff, refused it, and lost their sees. Heath, Tonstal, and Thirlby, were treated with

with great kindness ; the former was exiled to his own estate, where the queen frequently visited him ; the other two lived at Lambeth with their hospitable friend Archbishop Parker. White and Watson being fallen, were kept some time in confinement ; and the detestable Bonner spent the rest of his days in prison. Most of the monks returned to the occupations of secular life, whilst the nuns chiefly went abroad. These were the principal alterations which the change of religion operated on the fortunes of private persons. Not a drop of blood was spilt, nor one estate confiscated.

Towards the close of the same year, the consecration of Doctor Parker to the see of Canterbury, and of fifteen other prelates, was performed at Lambeth chapel. The doctor had been chaplain to the unfortunate Anna Boleyn, who conjured him to keep her daughter Elizabeth steady in point of religion. Being faithful to his trust, he with difficulty escaped the flames in the reign of Mary.

To settle the religion of the nation, to translate the scriptures into English, and to regulate the ecclesiastical courts, were great objects, which the new constellation of bishops earnestly endeavoured to compass. The translation of the Bible was allotted to various eminent divines, who accomplished it in the space of two years.\*

About this time the heads of the protestant party in Scotland entered privately into a bond of association for their mutual protection and the propagation of their tenets, styling themselves the *Congregation of the Lord*,  
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\* The first translation of the Bible was that of Wickliffe, about the year 1360. Printing was not then known, but several MS. copies of it exist in public libraries. The first printed English Bible we owe to William Tindal, assisted by Dr. Coverdale, bishop of Exeter. After receiving many improvements from the learned Dr Rogers, Mary's proto-martyr, and others, this work was called *Cranmer's Bible*. The translation now undertaken is known by the name of the Bishops'-Bible.



in contradiction to the established church, which they denominated the *Congregation of Satan*. The converts to the new religion had been guilty of no violation of public peace, since the murder of cardinal Beaton, by whom the reformers were cruelly persecuted. Among those committed to the flames, was a popular preacher, named George Wishart; a man of honourable birth, and of primitive sanctity, who possessed in an eminent degree the talent of seizing the attention and engaging the affections of the multitude. Wishart suffered with the patience of a martyr; but he could not forbear remarking the barbarous triumph of his insulting adversary, who beheld from a window of his sumptuous palace the inhuman spectacle: and he foretold, that in a few days the cardinal should, in the same palace, lie as low as now he was exalted high, in opposition to true piety and religion.

This prophecy like many others, was probably the cause of the event which it foretold. The disciples of Wishart, enraged at his cruel execution, formed a conspiracy against Beaton; and having associated with them Norman Lesly, eldest son of the earl of Rothes, who was instigated by revenge on account of private injuries, they surprised the cardinal in his palace or castle at St. Andrews, and instantly put him to death. One of the assassins, named James Melvil, before he struck the fatal blow, turned the point of his sword towards Beaton, and in a tone of pious exhortation called to him, "Repent thee, thou wicked Cardinal, of all thy sins and iniquities; but especially of the murder of George Wishart, that instrument of Christ for the conversion of these lands. It is his death which now cries for vengeance. We are sent by God to inflict the deserved punishment upon thee."

Alarmed at the progress of the reformation, the popish clergy had attempted to recover their sinking authority, by enforcing the tyrannical laws against heresy;

heresy ; and Hamilton, the primate, formerly distinguished by his moderation, had sentenced to the flames Walter Mills, an aged priest, convicted of embracing the protestant opinions.\* This was the last barbarity of the kind that the catholics had the power to exercise in Scotland. The severity of the archbishop rather roused than intimidated the reformers, who were powerfully supported by the rhetoric of John Knox, a preacher, possessed of a bold and popular eloquence. Having been carried prisoner into France, together with other persons taken in the castle of St. Andrews, soon after the murder of cardinal Beaton, Knox had made his escape out of that kingdom ; and, after residing sometimes in England, and sometimes in Scotland, had found it necessary, in order to avoid the vengeance of the popish clergy, to retire to Geneva. There he imbibed all the enthusiasm, and heightened the natural ferocity of his own character by the severe doctrines of Calvin, who had succeeded Zuinglius in the apostleship of that republic, and completed its ecclesiastical establishment.

Invited home by the heads of the protestant party in Scotland, Knox immediately joined his brethren, that he might share with them in the common danger, as well as in the glory of promoting the common cause. Having mounted the pulpit at Stirling, he declaimed with such vehemence against the idolatry, and other abuses of the church of Rome, that his audience were strongly incited to attempt its utter subversion. During those movements of holy indignation, the indiscreet bigotry of a priest, who immediately after that violent invective, was preparing to celebrate mass, and

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\* The good old reformer died with wonderful intrepidity. During his examination, his answers were acute and witty. Oliphant, a priest, having asked him, whether there were not seven sacraments ? he replied, " give me the Lord's supper and baptism, and divide the rest among you." What think you of matrimony, said the other ? " I think it a blessed bond," said Mills. " You abhor it, and take other men's wives and daughters."

and had opened all his repository of images and reliques, hurried the enthusiastic populace into immediate action. They fell with fury upon the devout catholic, broke the images, tore the pictures, overthrew the altars, and scattered about the sacred vases. They next proceeded to the monasteries, against which their zeal more particularly pointed its thunder. Not content with expelling the monks, and defacing every implement of idolatrous worship, as they termed it, they vented their rage upon the buildings which had been the receptacles of such abomination; and, in a few hours, those superb edifices were level with the ground.

In 1560, the parliament was perfectly disposed to establish the protestant faith. Petitions in favor of reformation were kindly received, and the few Roman Catholics who sat in the house, seeing their party very weak, chose to be silent. The papal authority being abolished, and the service forbidden to be read in Latin, a confession of faith, agreeable to the principles of reformation, was adopted, and general directions were given in favour of the new doctrines.

So little, however, had the protestant Scots learned to profit by the odious appearance of that persecution which had martyred their brethren, that one of their new laws enacted death, as the punishment for a third offence against its directions as to church worship.

### CHAP. III.

#### CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.

**T**HE despotism of Henry VIII. was succeeded by a kind of nerveless aristocracy. A few potent noblemen, during the reign of Edward, struggled for power and profit, and left the people to be plundered and ruined by bribed senators and iniquitous judges. Edward undoubtedly had good dispositions; but except

cept the spirited Latimer, who attempted by his plain but satirical discourses to open his eyes, he seemed hardly to have a single person about him who was not a party in supporting the prevailing system of corruption. The mildness of Cranmer rendered his advice ineffectual ; and Somerset was governed by his wife, the vainest of women.

The corruption of the judges, though connived at by the great ; could not escape the severe animadversions of Latimer, in his sermons before the king. " Now-a-days," says he, " the judges are afraid to hear a poor man against the rich ; they will either pronounce against him, or delay the suit, so that he shall not be able to go through with it. But the greatest man in the realm cannot hurt the judge so much as a poor widow." He then relates the story of a judge who was skinned for taking bribes, and his skin nailed to a chair for future judges to sit in. " The magistrates," adds he, " shew favour to some, and will not suffer them to be put to shame." " Oh ! he is such a one's servant, I must not meddle with him. He is a great man, I dare not displease him."—" Fie upon thee ! art thou a judge, and wilt thou be afraid to give right judgment ? Fear him not be he ever so great a man, but take care to do true justice."

The tyrannical laws against high treason, instituted under Henry the eighth, were abolished by Edward. But this young and virtuous prince having soon passed away, the blood-thirsty Mary astonished the world with her cruelties.

Under the long and brilliant reign of Elizabeth, England began to breathe anew ; and the protestant religion, being once more established, brought with it more freedom and toleration. The star-chamber, that effectual instrument of the tyranny of the two Henries, yet continued to subsist ; the inquisitorial tribunal of the high commission was even instituted ; and the yoke

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of arbitrary power lay still heavy on the subject. This, however, was rendered tolerable by the brilliancy of the reign, and affection of the people for a princess whose great talents rendered her worthy of being ranked among the greatest sovereigns.

The established principles of the times, which attributed to the prince such an unlimited power as was supposed to be the origin of all law, were unfavourable to liberty. The homilies published for the use of the clergy, inculcate a blind and passive obedience to the sovereign; and Dr. Gifford was suspended in 1584, for preaching up a limited obedience to the civil magistrate. It is remarkable that in all the historical plays of Shakspeare, where the manners and characters, and even the transactions of the several reigns are so exactly copied, there is scarcely any mention of *civil liberty*. In the elaborate panegyric of England, contained in the tragedy of Richard II. and the detail of its advantages, we have not a word of its civil constitution, as different from, or superior to, that of other European kingdoms; an omission which cannot be supposed in any English author, who wrote since the restoration, at least since the revolution. It was only during the next generation that the noble principles of liberty took root, and spreading themselves under the shelter of puritanical absurdities, became fashionable among the people.

Queen Elizabeth herself, indeed, was no friend to liberty, but watchfully checked those faint dawnings of its splendor, which now and then pervaded the gloom of despotism; nor was the administration of justice in her time calculated to secure either life or property. Dr. Hayward having dedicated a book to the earl of Essex, in which the queen supposed there was treason, and that it was not written by himself, but by a more mischievous person, asked lord Bacon, whether he ought not to be racked to make him produce the author?

thor? To which his lordship replied, "nay, madam, he is a doctor, never rack his person, but rack his style. Let him have pen, ink, and paper, and help of books, and let him be enjoined to continue the story where it breaks off, and I will undertake, by collating the styles, to judge whether he were the author or no." Thus, had it not been for Bacon's humanity, or rather his wit, Dr. Hayward had been put to the rack for a most innocent performance. His real offence was his dedicating a book to that munificent patron of the learned, the earl of Essex, at a time when this nobleman lay under her majesty's displeasure. The queen's menace of trying and punishing this author for treason could have easily been executed, though the book had been ever so innocent. While so many terrors hung over the people, no jury durst have acquitted a man, when the court was resolved to have him condemned. The practice also of not confronting witnesses with the prisoner, gave the crown lawyers all imaginable advantage against him.

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## CHAP. IV.

### LITERATURE.

**T**HOUGH the English language was much neglected in the middle of the sixteenth century, great attention was bestowed on ecclesiastical knowledge, nor was any rank deemed so exalted as to exclude the necessity of a thorough acquaintance with the learned tongues. Four successive sovereigns, Henry, Edward, Mary, and Elizabeth, might justly be styled proficient in literature. To an address of the university of Cambridge, written in Greek, queen Elizabeth made an extemporary reply in the same language, and translated into English the orations of Isocrates. She answered in Latin, without premeditation, and in a very spirited

spirited manner, to the Polish ambassador, who had been wanting in respect to her. When she had finished, she turned to her courtiers, and said, with great emotion, "I have been forced this day to scour up my old Latin, that had long been rusting." Elizabeth, even after she was queen, did not entirely drop the ambition of appearing as an author; and, next to her desire of ambition for beauty, this seems to have been the chief object of her vanity. She translated Boethius, on the *Consolation of Philosophy*, in order to allay her grief, because Henry IV. had changed his religion. As far as we can judge from Elizabeth's compositions, we may pronounce, that, notwithstanding her application and excellent parts, her taste in literature was but indifferent. In this particular, she was much inferior to her successor, who was far from being a perfect model of eloquence.

The queen's example had very great influence. The advantages of learning gradually became as much the property of the laity as of the clergy; and soon after the reign of this interesting princess, men attained to that state of general improvement, in which they have ever since made progressive advances.

In the age of Elizabeth, learning was a passport to the most honourable and lucrative situations. Sir Thomas Small was raised from a professorship at Cambridge to be, first, ambassador to France, and afterwards secretary of state. The dispatches of those times, and among others, those of Burleigh, are frequently interrupted by quotations from the Greek and Latin classics. Even the ladies of the court were adepts in science, and valued themselves more on their erudition, than on their rank and quality.

## CHAP V.

## THE ARTS.

**O**N the art of *agriculture* we need only observe, that the general stock of aliment was now increased by the discovery of potatoes. Captain Hawkins is said to have brought this excellent root from Santa Fé, in New Spain, in 1565. Sir Walter Raleigh soon after planted it on his lands in Ireland; but, on eating the apple which is nauseous and unwholesome, he had nearly consigned the whole crop to destruction. The spade however discovered the real potatoe, and the root soon became a favourite eatable. It continued for a long time to be thought rather a species of dainty than of provision, and it was not supposed capable of preserving the country where it was fostered from the attacks of famine.

The land of England, was at this time, both cheap and productive. The good bishop Latimer, in one of his sermons, gives the following account of the produce of a small farm. "My father" says he, "was a yeoman, and had a farm of three or four pounds a year, upon which he tilled enough to keep half-a-dozen men. He had pasture for an hundred sheep; and my mother milked thirty cows. He kept his son at school till he went to the university, married *his daughters with five pounds a-piece*, kept hospitality with his neighbours, and gave some alms to the poor; and all this he did out of the said farm."

A mixed system of *architecture* was adopted towards the close of the sixteenth century, the finest example of which was Theobalds, the magnificent seat of the celebrated lord Burleigh, Elizabeth's secretary. Hatfield-house owes its origin to the same great minister; and Osterley-house to the patriotic sir Thomas Gresham, who built the Royal-Exchange, which perished by the fire of London, in 1666. It was at Osterley that



that the opulence and gallantry of sir Thomas rivalled the wonders of romance. Elizabeth had visited that superb mansion, and, on quitting the window to go to bed, had remarked aloud, "how much more handsome the court-yard would appear, if divided by a wall." The words were caught by sir Thomas, who instantly on quitting the royal presence, sent hastily to his masons and bricklayers, assisted them with a number of labourers, worked all the night, and completed the wall according to the queen's wishes, before she rose in the morning. The courtiers, chagrined at the knight's alertness, consoled themselves by remarking, "that it was no wonder he could so soon change a building, who could build a *change*."

Houses, in general, were built of strong timber. "In times past" says Holingshed; "men were contented to dwell in houses built of willow; but when our houses were built of willow, then had we oaken men; but now that our houses are made of oak, our men are not only become willow, but a great many altogether straw. In these the courage of the owner was a sufficient defence to keep the house in safety; but now the assurance of the timber must defend the men from being robbed."

With regard to *sculpture*, some good medallions were struck, during Elizabeth's reign, on great public occasions, particularly that on the defeat of the Spanish armada, of which the motto, ascribing the victory to divine providence, is admirable: *Afflavit Deus, et dissipantur*. "God raised a storm, and the enemy were scattered."

*Painting* lay dormant in England during the short reign of Edward VI. Under Mary it was enlivened by the presence of Antonio More, a native of Utrecht, who was sent over to London that he might paint the portrait of the intended bride of the Spanish Philip. For this work he had an hundred pounds, a gold chain, knighthood,

hithood, and a pension of a hundred pounds per quarter, as painter to their majesties. Elizabeth, encouraged painting, because she was never tired of seeing portraits of herself. A pale Roman nose, a head of hair loaded with pearls and powdered with diamonds, a large ruff, a still larger fardingale, and a bushel of pearls, are the features, by which we recognise Elizabeth.

With regard to *poetry*, we may observe, that the sanguinary measures which Henry VIII. pursued in his domestic policy, threw a cloud over the studies of the nation, which the barbarities of his daughter Mary rendered yet darker, and which was not dispelled till the middle of the reign of Elizabeth. Then the *muse*, always the first in the train of literature, ventured once more to expand her wings, and Chaucer found a successor worthy of himself in the celebrated Spenser. The principal work of this poet is named the *Fairy Queen*. It is of the heroic kind, and was intended as a compliment to Elizabeth and her courtiers. But instead of employing historical characters for that purpose, like Virgil, the most refined flatterer, if not the finest poet of antiquity, Spenser makes use of allegorical personages; a choice which has contributed to consign to neglect one of the most poetical compositions that genius ever produced. For the descriptions in the *Fairy Queen* are generally bold and striking, or soft and captivating, the language is nervous and elegant, while the versification is harmonious and flowing.

Shakespeare, the father of our drama, was more happy in his line of composition. He wandered in pursuit of universal nature. The glancings of his eye are from heaven to earth, from earth to heaven. We behold him breaking the barriers of imaginary method. In the same scene, he descends from his meridian of the noblest tragic sublimity, to puns and quibbles, to the meanest merriments of a plebeian farce. In the  
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midst of his dignity, he resembles his own Richard II. the *skipping king*, who sometimes discarding the state of a monarch,

“Mingled his royalty with carping fools.”

He seems not to have seen any impropriety, in the most abrupt transactions, from dukes to buffoons, from senators to sailors, from counsellors to constables, and from kings to clowns.

No satires, properly so called, were written till towards the latter end of the queen's reign, and then but a few. Pictures drawn at large of the vices of the times, did not suit readers who loved to wander in the regions of artificial manners. The muse, like the people, was too solemn and reserved, too ceremonious and pedantic, to stoop to common life. Satire is the poetry of a nation highly polished.

During the latter part of this period, a knowledge of *music* appears to have been an indispensable accomplishment in domestic life. “Being at a banquet,” says Morley, “after supper was ended and music books brought to table, the mistress of the house, according to custom, presented me with a part, earnestly intreating me to sing. After many excuses, I protested that I could not, when every one began to wonder, and some whispered to others, enquiring how I had been brought up.” Elizabeth was a very considerable performer on the lute, as well as on the virginals, an ill-shaped clumsy box, much inferior to a spinet, both in loudness and sweetness. She loved also to hear loud music, and used to listen during her meals to “twelve trumpets and two kettle drums, which, together with fifes, cornets, and side-drums, made the hall ring for half an hour together.”

## CHAP. VI.

## BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES.

**JOHN LELAND**, the first and last antiquary-royal in England, died in 1552. He was bred under William Lily, and studied successively at Cambridge, Oxford, and Paris. On entering into orders he became chaplain and librarian to Henry VIII. By virtue of the royal commission, he searched various cathedrals and religious houses for curious records and secrets of antiquity, in which employment he spent six years, travelling over every part of the kingdom. Having completed his labours, he was presented to the valuable living of Hasely, in Oxfordshire, and to a prebend in the church of Salisbury. The *Collectanea* and *Itinerary* of Leland, the MSS. of which are in the Bodleian collection, are invaluable performances. This great man was insane some time before his decease, which happened opportunely, as Leland, who was a protestant, had been too active in monastic researches to have escaped the resentment of the bigot Mary. Upon the whole, he may not unjustly be styled the father of the English antiquaries.

*Thomas Sternhold*, whose version of David's Psalms is well known, was groom of the robes to Henry VII. and Edward VI. and died in 1549. His coadjutor John Hopkins, a clergyman and schoolmaster of Suffolk, is rather a better English poet than Sternhold, and translated 58 of the psalms, distinguished by the initials of his name. Mr. Warton says, that this translation, by ascertaining the signification of many radical words, and by displaying original modes of the English language, may be justly deemed no inconsiderable monument of our ancient literature, if not of our ancient poetry. From the circumstances of the times, however, and the growing refinements of science, it must

bondage, to a generous mind, much worse than death ! He did not long survive this extreme vexation, but died of grief, in the prime of his days, in 1557.

Dr. *Cole*, dean of St. Paul's, and a native of the Isle of Wight, was a learned man, though not so amiable as his contemporary, sir John Cheke. It was doubtless a mark of the esteem in which his abilities were held, that he was chosen to maintain a public disputation at Oxford, against Cranmer and Ridley, and when the former was destined to the stake for heresy, *Cole* preached and published the execution sermon. In short, he seems to have been at this time a leading man of a very leading party, as will further appear by a singular anecdote. Mary, the royal mistress of his fortunes, was determined, it seems, to act the same fatal tragedy among her protestant subjects in Ireland, as she had already done at home in Smithfield. For executing this purpose her commission was made out, and who should have the care of it but her trusty and well-beloved Doctor *Cole* ? He undertook the charge, and in the progress of this business, making some stay at Chester, he was waited on by the mayor of that city. In the course of the conversation which passed between these two, the doctor was so full of his commission, that he could not forbear, as we say, to let the cat out of the bag. " I have that with me," saith he, producing a little box from his portmanteau, " which will lash the heretics of Ireland." His hostess, a Mrs. Edmonds, had the good luck to overhear this, and being more than half a heretic herself, and having a brother of that persuasion in Dublin, she became much troubled, and taking her opportunity whilst the doctor was gone down to compliment his worship the mayor to the door, she stole into the dean's apartment, took out the commission, and put a pack of cards into the box in its room. The doctor, having completed his civilities, returns to his chamber, and puts up the box without

without the least suspicion of what had happened. Soon after he set sail for Dublin, where he arrived in the month of December, 1558. Being introduced to the lord lieutenant and privy council, he began with a speech in form, to set forth the nature of his business, and then delivered his box with due ceremony. "What have we here?" said they, "This is nothing but a pack of cards." It is not easy to conceive the doctor's feelings at the ridiculous figure he now made. He could only say, that a commission he certainly had, but who had played him this trick he could not tell. "Why then, Mr. Dean," says his lordship, "you have nothing to do but to return to London, and get your commission renewed, whilst we in the mean time shuffle your cards." This sarcastic advice, the doctor, no doubt with infinite chagrin, was obliged to take, though at so disagreeable a season of the year. But as they met with contrary winds and other vexatious delays, the queen died before the business could be accomplished. Her successor, Elizabeth, was so well pleased with this story, that she allowed Mrs. Edmonds 40l. a-year, during her life, for this seasonable and important piece of dexterity.

About the same time flourished *Thomas Tusser*, a pleasant poet as well as a good farmer, whose Georgics may be read without disgust by those who have studied the works of Hesiod, or even of the Mantuan bard. His work was entitled, "Five Hundred Points of good Husbandry." His directions are entertaining, as they shew the customs of his age; and from the antiquity of his diction, he may properly be styled the English Varro. The directions which he gives for the culture of a hop-garden are remarkably judicious, and finish thus:

"The hop, for its profit, I thus do exalt,

"It strengtheneth drink, and it favoureth malt,

"And, being well brewed, long kept it will last,

"And drawing abide, if you draw not too fast."

The

The vicissitudes of this man's life have uncommon variety and novelty for the life of an author. He was first placed as a chorister, or singing-boy, in the collegiate church of Wallingford, Berks. Having a fine voice, he was impressed for the royal chapel. He was soon afterwards admitted into the choir of saint Paul's cathedral in London, where he made great improvements under the instruction of John Redford the organist, a famous musician. He was next sent to Eaton-school, where, at one chastisement, he received fifty-three stripes of the rod, from the severe but celebrated master Nicholas Udall. In 1543, he was admitted to king's college, Cambridge. He afterwards became by turns, musician, farmer, grazier, and poet. Without a tincture of careless imprudence, or vicious extravagance, this desultory character seems to have thrived in no vocation. Fuller says, that his stone, *which gathered no moss*, was the stone of Sisyphus. His plough and his poetry were alike unprofitable. He died in 1580, and was buried in St. Mildred's church in the Poultry.

*Sir Thomas Smith*, a celebrated writer and statesman, who was born in 1512, and died in 1578, studied at Cambridge, where he afterwards read Greek lectures and taught a new method of accenting the language. During the reign of Henry VI. he was made secretary of state, knighted, and sent ambassador to Brussels. Mary deprived him of his places, on account of his religion, but allowed him 100l. per annum. When Elizabeth came to the throne, he was again restored to power and confidence. He wrote a treatise on the "Commonwealth of England," and had great knowledge in physic, chemistry, and mathematics. On his tomb in the church of Theydon-Mount, Essex, are inscribed these four lines:

"What earth, or seas, or skies contain,  
"What creatures in them be,

"My

"My mind did seek to know,

"My soul, the heavens continually."

Sir *Thomas Pope*, who died in 1588, was an eminent statesman, as well as a polite scholar, and the founder of Trinity college, Oxford. Employed by Thomas Cromwell in overseeing the dissolution of religious houses, he acted with singular candor and moderation, and amassed a splendid fortune without staining his private character. He was not only steady, but wonderfully fortunate, if it be true that in the four last reigns of the Tudor dynasty, he never changed his faith, and yet retained the favour of his sovereigns. To him the abbey at St. Alban's owes its exemption from ruin and demolition. Mary employed him to watch over the actions of her sister Elizabeth; a delicate task, which he yet performed so as neither to excite suspicion in Mary, nor resentment in Elizabeth.

Sir *Philip Sidney*, an accomplished statesman, general, and poet, was born in 1554, and died in 1586. He was employed on several embassies by queen Elizabeth, who conferred on him the honour of knighthood in 1582. He served with great reputation in Flanders, with the forces sent by the queen to assist the states; and fell in the service of his country. This amiable man was equally the delight of Elizabeth's court and army, as his person and endowments were only equalled by his valour and humanity. After his thigh-bone had been broken by a musket-shot, in the agony of his wound he called for water. Some was brought to him, but, as he was lifting it to his lips, the ghastly looks of a dying soldier struck his eye. "Take this," said he, "holding the water to him, *thy* necessity is yet greater than *mine*." He died with the resignation of a saint; and so general was the grief for his loss, that it was looked upon as a *sin* to appear in gay clothes at court for several months after. Elizabeth lamented his death, and James of Scotland wrote his



his epitaph. As a writer Sidney appears rather a man of great literature than of bright genius. His *Arcadia* so highly admired in its age, is now little esteemed.

*Edmund Spenser*, a very celebrated poet, whose fame is immortalized by his beautiful poems, called "*The Shepherd's Calendar*," and "*The Fairy Queen*," was born in London, and educated at Pembroke college, Cambridge. His animated lines on despair, gained him the patronage of Sir Philip Sidney, when he was appointed poet laureat to queen Elizabeth, but for some time only wore the barren laurel, and possessed the place without the pension. The queen was so well pleased with one of his stanzas, that she ordered him an hundred pounds for it. "What!" said the economical Burleigh, "all this for a song?"—"Give him then what is reason," said the queen, who had already repented of her generosity. Spenser, to whom this conversation had been told, waited for some time with patience, but at length presented his petition:

"I was promis'd, on a time, to have reason for my rhyme,

"From that time unto this season, I've receiv'd nor rhyme nor reason."

The queen perused the sarcastic complaint, frowned on Burleigh, and ordered the fool to be paid. Soon after fortune smiled on our bard. He married a rich wife, was made secretary of Ireland, and had a large grant of lands. Desmond's revolt, however, proved his ruin. His plantations were destroyed, his house and one of his children were burnt, and he was forced to flee into England. Even thither misfortune accompanied him. Sidney was no more, and Spenser, who had no other patron, is believed to have languished and died in actual penury, in 1598. The following lines, in "*Mother Hubbard's Tale*," are supposed to have given disgust to Lord Burleigh.

"Full

" Full little dost thou know that hast not tried,  
 " What hell it is in suing long to bide ;  
 " To speed to day ; to be put back to morrow ;  
 " To feed on hope ; to pine with care and sorrow ;  
 " To have thy prince's grace, yet want her peer's ;  
 " To gain thy asking, yet want many years ;  
 " To fret thy soul with crosses and with care ;  
 " To eat thy heart with comfortless despair ;  
 " To fawn, to crouch, to wait, to ride, to run ;  
 " To spend, to give, to want, to be undone."

*William Shakespeare*, the great poet of nature, was descended of a reputable family, at Stratford upon Avon, where his father carried on the wool-trade. He was born in 1564, and educated at the free-school in Stratford, but was taken early from school, and employed in his father's business. At seventeen years of age he married, and became a parent before he was out of his minority. Having become acquainted with some persons who followed the practice of deer stealing, he was prevailed upon to engage with them in robbing sir Thomas Lucy's park. The injury being repeated, that gentleman was provoked to enter a prosecution against the delinquents ; and Shakespeare, in revenge, made him the subject of a ballad, which, tradition says, was pointed with so much bitterness, that he found it necessary to quit the country. From Warwickshire he came up to London, where he threw himself among the players, but he never made any figure as an actor, and Mr. Rowe says, that his highest character was the ghost in his own *Hamlet*. He therefore turned his genius to writing plays, which at first he adapted chiefly to the lower classes, of whom his audiences were generally composed. But when his performances gained the approbation of the queen, and the full protection of the court, he composed more polished pieces. Soon after the accession of James I. he was one of the head managers of the play-house, and

continued

continued so for several years, till, having acquired a good fortune, he quitted the business of the stage, and spent the remainder of his days at his native town of Stratford, where he died in 1616. He was interred with his ancestors, in the great church of Stratford, where there is a handsome monument erected for him. In 1740, another very noble one was raised to his memory, in Westminster-abbey, the chief expence of which was defrayed by the profits arising from the performance of his tragedy of "*Julius Cæsar*," at the theatre royal in Drury lane. His judgment in managing the incidents, which he selected from such historical books or romances as fell in his way, was equal to the boldness of his invention when he relied upon his own strength.

In Scotland, the elegant *Mary Stuart* set a bright example to her subjects, in literary attainments. Not contented with light and graceful accomplishments, with which the court of Catherine de Medicis could supply her, she studied the dead languages; and, at a very early age, astonished the king and court, by pronouncing an oration, composed by herself, in classical Latin. Her skill in poetry was great, and her elegiac compositions truly affecting.

*James Crichton*, a descendant from the ancient Scottish kings, of whom so many wonderful things are recorded as to have procured him the name of "*The admirable Crichton*," was born in Perthshire, in 1560, and educated at St. Andrew's. Before he was 20 years of age, he had gone through the whole circle of sciences, and was, besides, an accomplished gentleman. He now began his travels, and reaching Paris, challenged all the learned men to dispute with him in any art or science, and in any language ancient or modern. Having managed this disputation with great success, from nine in the morning till six at night, the professors presented him with a diamond ring, and a purse of gold.

gold. The next day he went to a tilting match, and in presence of the court, carried the prize fifteen times successively. From thence he went to Rome, where he disputed in the presence of the pope and the cardinals. At Venice he obtained a complete victory over the followers of Aristotle. At Mantua, in 1581, this bright but short lived meteor was extinguished. A prize-fighter protected by the duke, having slain three antagonists, his noble patron wished to be rid of so dangerous an inmate. Crichton offered to fight him before the Mantuan court, killed him, and, by dividing the rich prize which he gained by his success among the widows of the slain champions, raised the applause of the people even to adoration. He became the darling of the Italian ladies, and the duke appointed him preceptor to his only son Vincentio Gonzaga, a very licentious prince. A tragic scene too soon followed this comedy. Crichton was beloved by a lady of rank, and exquisite beauty, on whom Vincentio had harboured designs in vain. The happy lover was assailed at his mistress's door by a party of masqued bravoës. He repulsed their united force with ease, when the leader losing his sword, begged for life, and, unmasking, shewed the face of his pupil, the young duke. Awed at the sight, Crichton fell on his knees, and holding his sword by the point, presented it to the worthless youth, who, guided by the most diabolical malice and envy, stabbed him with his own weapon to the heart.

*George Buchanan*, an eminent Scottish poet and historian, who was born in 1506, and died in 1582, in the celebrated history of his own country has united the force and brevity of Sallust with the elegance and perspicuity of Livy. His severe remarks, however, on the errors of the unfortunate Mary, raised him many foes, and are by no means laudible, as they bear the marks of self-interest, partiality, and malice against a woman in distress. Every man of taste knows with  
what

what admirable skill and genius he translated the Psalms into Latin verse. His great talents procured him the honourable appointment of preceptor to James VI. of Scotland. When he was reproached with having made his majesty a pedant; "It is a wonder," said he, "that I have made so much of him." He died in more affluence than men of wit and learning commonly attain, having considerable posts in Scotland, and a pension from Elizabeth. James VI. having shewn to his old tutor an unpardonable neglect, during his illness, at last condescended to send a nobleman to enquire after his health. "Tell his majesty," replied the irritated sage, "that I am going to a place, where *king's flesh is venison*."—"His happy genius," says Dr. Robertson, "equally formed to excel in prose or verse, more various, more original, and more elegant than that of almost any other modern who writes in Latin, reflects the greatest lustre on his country."

With regard to the females of this age, *Margaret*, daughter to sir Thomas More, and afterwards the wife of William Roper, Esq. was the most learned woman of her time, having translated from the Greek Eusebius's Ecclesiastical History. The tender affection which this accomplished lady bore to her father survived his catastrophe. She purchased his head from those who guarded it on the tower of London-bridge, and was interred with that melancholy relic in her hand. The skull may still be seen in a vault of St Dunstan's church, Canterbury, where Margaret Roper was buried.

The house of sir Anthony Cook was fruitful in accomplished females. Mildred, the elder, afterwards lady Burleigh, was eminent for her learning, piety, and charity. The knight's second daughter, Anne, on account of her sense and erudition, was appointed governess to Edward VI. At the age of 22, she published 25 sermons, which she had translated from the Italian

Italian tongue. She afterwards became the wife of Sir Nicholas Bacon. Catharine also, another child of this fortunate parent, who married Sir Henry Killigrew, was celebrated for her knowledge of the Hebrew, Greek, and Latin languages.

As lady Jane Grey was one of the most unfortunate, so was she one of the most accomplished and learned women of her age: when she was sentenced to die, on the prevalence of Mary's party, because she had been proclaimed queen of England, she wrote a Greek letter to her sister, on the evening previous to her death.

## CHAP. VII.

### COMMERCE.

**Q**UEEN Elizabeth, conscious what addition both to the strength and wealth of the nation must accrue from the extension of her trade, gave great encouragement both to commerce and manufactures. Her private interest and the importunity of her avaricious favourites, betrayed her into the measure of granting monopolies, and of creating exclusive companies with exclusive privileges, fatal to the interest of her most industrious subjects.

Before the reign of Elizabeth, the English princes had usually recourse to the city of Antwerp for voluntary loans; - and their credit was so low, that besides paying the high interest of ten or twelve per cent. they were obliged to make the city of London join in the security. That great and enterprising merchant, sir Thomas Gresham, engaged the company of merchant-adventurers to grant a loan to the queen; and as the money was regularly repaid, her credit by degrees established itself in the city, and she shook off this dependance on foreigners. At the same time the mer-

O

chants

chants of the Hanse towns, or trading cities of the netherlands, withdrew from the English commerce, hoping that necessity would occasion their recal. This weak step only tended to convince the English merchants that they could carry on trade without their assistance. Having therefore built ships, they soon found the sweets of those additional profits, which this new independence afforded them. The exports from England to the Hanse towns were wool, cloths, saffron, lead, tin, and cheese; while she received from them, jewels, wrought silks, cloth of gold and silver, spices, drugs, linen, tapestry, madder, hops, glasses, arms, ammunition, and household furniture.

After the death of John Basilides, his son Theodore revoked the patent which the English enjoyed for a *monopoly of the Russian trade*. When the queen remonstrated against this innovation, he told her ministers, that trade, which by the laws of nations ought to be common to all, should not be converted into a monopoly for the private gain of a few. So much juster notions of commerce were entertained by *this barbarian* than appear in the conduct of the renowned queen Elizabeth! Theodore, however, continued some privileges to the English, on account of their being the discoverers of the communication between Europe and his country.

The trade of Turkey, which commenced about the year 1583, was immediately confined to a company by queen Elizabeth. Before that time, the grand seignior had always conceived England to be a dependant province of France.

In 1600, the English East-India company received its first formation, that trade being till then in the hands of the Portuguese, in consequence of their having first discovered the passage to India by the Cape of Good Hope. Factories were established in China, Japan, India, Amboyna, Java, and Sumatra.

For

For several years after the commencement of this period, the state of the English manufactures was low, as foreign wares of almost all kinds had the preference. In 1567 there were found, on enquiry, to be 4851 strangers of all nations in London, of whom 3838 were Flemings, and only 58 Scots. The persecutions in France and the low countries drove afterwards a greater number of foreigners into England, by whom commerce and manufactures were very much improved. It was then that sir Thomas Gresham built, at his own charge, for the reception of merchants, the magnificent fabric of the exchange, which the queen visited, and gave it the appellation of the royal exchange.

The navy of this country, at the decease of the queen, consisted of 42 vessels. But when we consider that none of these ships carried above forty guns; that four only came up to that number; that there were but two ships of a thousand tons; and twenty-three below five hundred, some of fifty, and some even of twenty tons; and that the whole number of guns belonging to the fleet was seven hundred and seventy-four; we must entertain a contemptible idea of the English navy, compared to the force which it has now attained.

*Crown* and *half-crown* pieces of silver became for the first time current money, in the reign of Edward VI. The sixpenny piece too then appeared in England.

During the two first years of her active government, Elizabeth coined so much money, that she found herself enabled, in 1560, to utter a proclamation, by which the bad coin was reduced to its real value. "Next to the reformation of religion," says the ingenious Mr. Leake, "nothing could be more glorious or beneficial to the kingdom, than the reformation of the money." The parliament congratulated Elizabeth upon it, and it makes a striking part of the laudatory inscription on her tomb at Westminster.

In



In Scotland, Mary Stuart, on her marriage with lord Darnley, struck silver coins impressed with two thistles, and "*Maria et Henricus, Dei Gratia, Regina et Rex Scotorum.*" The reverse of these pieces was remarkable, being a crowned tree, supposed to relate to a curious yew in the park of the earl of Lenox, father to lord Darnley, with the motto "*Dat gloria vires.*" Glory gives strength.

## CHAP. VIII.

### MANNERS.

THE nobility in this age still supported, in some degree, the ancient magnificence in their hospitality, and in the number of their retainers. The queen, however, found it prudent to retrench, by proclamation, their expences in this last particular. The expence of hospitality she somewhat encouraged by the frequent visits she paid her nobility, and the sumptuous feasts which she received from them. The earl of Leicester gave her an entertainment in Kenilworth-castle, which was extraordinary for expence and magnificence. Among other particulars, we are told, that 365 hogsheads of beer were drank at it. The earl had fortified this castle, which contained arms for ten thousand men. The earl of Derby had a family consisting of 240 servants. Burleigh, though he was frugal, and had no paternal estate, kept a family consisting of an hundred servants. Burleigh entertained the queen twelve several times in his country-house, where she remained four, or five weeks at a time. Each visit cost him two or three thousand pounds.

Among the other species of luxury, that of apparel began much to increase during this age; and the queen  
thought

thought proper to restrain it by proclamation. Her example was very little conformable to her edicts. As no woman was ever more conceited of her beauty, or more desirous of making impression on the hearts of beholders, no one ever went to a greater extravagance in apparel, or studied more the variety and richness of her dresses. She appeared almost every day in a different habit and tried all the several modes by which she hoped to render herself agreeable. She was also so fond of her clothes, that she never could part with any of them; and at her death she had in her wardrobe all the different habits, to the number of three thousand, which she had ever worn.

Perfumed gloves, ornamented with tufts of rose-coloured silk, were so much the delight of Elizabeth, that she would always be drawn with her favourite pair, presented by the earl of Oxford, on his return from Italy. Silk stockings, too, came in with Elizabeth. Mrs. Montague, her silk-woman, having presented her with a pair of black silk stockings, she never afterwards wore cloth hose. Knit stockings were first introduced to the English court by William, earl of Pembroke.

The fardingale, a Spanish petticoat, was introduced during the connection of Philip and Mary. Howell intimates that this fashion was invented to screen unlicensed pregnancy.

The pocket-handkerchiefs of the ladies were frequently wrought with gold and silver. In the old ballad of George Barnwell, it is said of Milwood,

“A handkerchief she had;

“All wrought with beaten gold;

“Which she to stay her trickling tears,

“Before her eyes did hold.”

Ruffs, made of lawn and cambric, and stiffened with yellow starch, reaching to the upper part of the head behind, were worn both by ladies and gentlemen.

“When

"When I saw queen Elizabeth," says Hentzner, "she was in her 67th year, and had in her ears two pearls with very rich drops. She wore false *red hair*, and her bosom was uncovered. She was dressed in white silk, bordered with pearls of the size of beans, and over it a mantle of black silk, shot with silver threads; and, instead of a chain, she had an oblong collar of gold and jewels. Whenever she turned her face, as she went along, every one fell down on his knees." Her father had been treated with the same deference. James I. suffered his courtiers to omit it;—one instance, among a thousand, of the superiority of the best of the Tudors, in disposition, to the most imperious of the Stuarts.

The beard, in the reign of Mary, throve abundantly. Those of bishop Gardiner and of cardinal Pole, in their portraits, are of a most uncommon size. The beard was sometimes used in the sixteenth century as a *tooth-pick case*. The celebrated admiral Coligni always wore his tooth-pick in his beard.

Among the customs of this age, there was none more prominent, nor more lasting than that of smoking tobacco. This herb reached England in 1586, imported by the remains of sir Walter Raleigh's unfortunate settlers in Virginia. The knight himself was one of its first admirers, but for some time preserved great secrecy in his attachment, till the foible was discovered by a ridiculous accident. Sir Walter was enjoying his pipe in solitude, forgetful that he had ordered his servant to attend him with a goblet of ale. The faithful domestic suddenly entering the study, and finding, as he thought, his master's brains on fire, and evaporating in smoke and flame through his nostrils, did his utmost to extinguish the conflagration, by emptying the goblet on his master's head; and rushing out of the room, alarmed the family with an account of the frightful scene he had witnessed. Sir Walter then  
made

made no secret of taking tobacco, and many years afterwards he smoked two pipes publicly on the scaffold.

In the course of this period, theatrical representations furnished amusement to all ranks. When the regular dramatic pieces had once gained possession of the stage, their progress was rapid. The people hailed them as mines of pleasure, and were never satiated with the ores they produced. The earliest patent for acting plays, is dated in 1574; but in the beginning of the next century, at least 15 licensed theatres were open to the inhabitants of London. The best plays, particularly those of Shakespeare, were acted at the blackfriars theatre, which was crowded with people of fashion. The price of admittance to the best places at the superior theatres was, as late as 1614, only one shilling; and at the inferior ones, one penny, or two pence would gain admission to a pretty good place. Before the exhibition began, three flourishes, or pieces of music were played. The instruments chiefly used were trumpets, cornets, and hautboys. The person who spoke the prologue was ushered in by trumpets, and usually wore a long black velvet cloak. An epilogue was not looked on as a necessary appendage to a play. Plays, in the early days of the drama, began about one in the afternoon, and lasted generally about two hours. One dramatic piece composed the whole entertainment of the day. When the author sold his play to the stage, the customary price was six guineas.

## CHAP. IX.

### INCIDENTS AND CURIOUS PARTICULARS.

**I**N 1553, Edward VI. incorporated Bethlem and Bridewell hospitals in the metropolis, including a school for poor boys, with certain regulations, under the patronage of the city of London.

In 1554, during the heat of queen Mary's persecution, Elizabeth was in a very unpleasant state. Being once urged to explain her sentiments concerning the real presence, she made the following extemporary reply:

"Christ was the word that spake it,

"He took the bread and brake it,

"And what the word did make it,

"I do believe and take it."

She was, however, under the disagreeable necessity to hear mass and submit to confession. Gardiner, bishop of Winchester, had once actually procured a warrant for her death, signed by some of the privy council; but the queen being told of it, was obliged to forbid the execution.

Elizabeth loved the pomp of the Romish service, and retained in her church ordinances some of those vestments which her brother Edward had dismissed; she expunged from the Litany, "*From the tyranny of the Bishop of Rome, and all his detestable enormities, Good Lord deliver us!*" She has been known to call out from her closet to her chaplain, in the middle of a sermon, to desist from condemning the sign of the cross; she openly thanked one of her divines for preaching on behalf of the real presence; she hated that the clergy should marry, and, but for Cecil, would have forbidden them. On the other hand, she is said to have severely reprimanded a clergyman for placing before her at church a ritual ornamented with paintings of saints, and other illuminations.

In 1567, Captain Frobisher, in his pursuit of the North-West passage, fell in with the Straights which lead to Hudson's bay, and discovered the Western coast of Greenland. He brought with him to England a poor savage, who unconscious of the advantage of civilization, pined away through regret for his native snows.

In

In 1569, the Italian method of book-keeping was taught in England, by James Peele. His work; printed in the black letter, is still extant; and its instructions, though verbose, are practical.

In 1582, a supply of water was brought by Peter Morris, a freeman of London, to the highest part of the city. He laid pipes over the tower of St. Magnus.

In 1588, the *Chest at Chatham* was established, which, by means of a small deduction from the pay of every seaman, provides an annual allowance for such as may chance to be wounded.

In 1590, Elizabeth formed an establishment at Westminster, for forty boys, in every species of classical learning. The progress of Westminster school has been steady and fortunate. Its masters have been, and are still, as much distinguished for their learning, as the students for spirit and urbanity.

The university of Edinburgh was founded, in 1580, by James VI. on the supplication of the magistrates ruling that metropolis; who, with the most opulent citizens, were the benefactors and endowers, aided by donations of religious houses and lands. These are accordingly the sole patrons and visitors, though James seems to have wished to be the sole patron, and to have it called "King James's college."

The Marischal college at Aberdeen was founded, in 1594, by George, earl Marischal, who endowed it with a considerable landed estate. The expence of the building was chiefly defrayed by the town of Aberdeen.

In 1589, coaches were first introduced into England. The hackney act passed in 1693, and hackney coaches were increased to 1000, in 1770.

## BOOK VIII.

## CHAP. I.

MILITARY HISTORY FROM THE ACCESSION OF  
JAMES VI. IN 1603, TO THE REVOLUTION, IN  
1688.

THE crown of England was never transmitted from father to son with greater tranquillity, than it passed from the family of Tudor to that of Stewart. James VI. king of Scotland, son of the unfortunate Mary queen of Scots, succeeded Elizabeth to the throne of England, by the title of James I. and as his hereditary right was unquestionable, and the late queen, with her dying breath, had recognised the title of her kinsman, his accession was universally approved of by all orders of the state.

James was not insensible to the great flow of affection which appeared in his new subjects, and being himself of an affectionate temper, he seems to have been in haste to make them some return of kindness and good offices. In six weeks after his entrance into the kingdom, he is computed to have bestowed knighthood on no less than 237 persons; and titles of all kinds became so common, that they were *scarcely a mark of distinction*. But as the king's favours were shared out to the Scottish courtiers who attended him to England, proportionably in greater numbers than to the English, the latter did not fail to murmur. It must, however, be owned, in justice to the new king, that he left almost all the chief offices in the hands of Elizabeth's ministers, and trusted the conduct of political

cal concerns, both foreign and domestic, to his English subjects.

Henry IV. of France, in conjunction with the United Provinces, and the northern crowns, now proposed a league to depress the exorbitant power of the house of Austria. But the genius of the English monarch not being equal to such vast enterprizes, and the love of peace being his ruling passion, he declined it.

Amidst this tranquillity, a conspiracy was carried on to subvert the government, and to seat on the throne the lady Arabella Stewart, the king's near relation by the family of Lenox, and descended equally from Henry VII. Lord Grey, lord Cobham, sir Walter Raleigh, and many other persons of consideration, were concerned in this dangerous combination. Upon its being discovered, some of them were executed. The lords Cobham and Grey were pardoned, after they had laid their heads on the block; and sir Walter Raleigh, having received a respite, was remanded to his confinement; in which he continued for several years.

It was an advantage to this monarch at the beginning of his reign, that the courts of Rome and Spain were thought to be his enemies; and this opinion was increased by the discovery and defeat of the gunpowder treason. This was a scheme of the Roman catholics to cut off at one blow the king, lords, and commons, at the meeting of parliament, when it was also expected that the queen and prince of Wales would be present. About ten days before the meeting, a Roman catholic peer received a letter which had been delivered to his servant by an unknown hand, earnestly advising him not to attend. The nobleman, though he considered the letter as a foolish attempt to frighten and ridicule him, thought proper to lay it before the king, who studying the contents with more attention, began to suspect some dangerous contrivance by gun-powder, and ordered all the vaults below the house of parliament



ment to be inspected. A justice of peace was, therefore, sent with proper attendants, who finding one Faux before the door of the upper house, immediately seized him, and at the same time discovered in the vault 36 barrels of powder, which had been carefully concealed under faggots and piles of wood. The match, and every thing proper for setting fire to the train, were found in Faux's pocket, whose countenance bespoke his savage disposition, and who, after regretting that he had lost the opportunity of destroying so many heretics, made a full discovery. The conspirators, who never exceeded 80 in number, being seized by the country people, confessed their guilt, and were executed in different parts of England. Notwithstanding this horrid crime, the bigoted catholics were so devoted to Garner a jesuit, one of the conspirators, that they fancied miracles to be wrought by his blood, and in Spain he was considered as a martyr.

James was much blamed for his partiality to favourites. His first was Robert Carr, a private Scottish gentleman, who was created earl of Somerset. He married the countess of Essex, who had obtained a divorce from her husband, and was with her found guilty of poisoning sir Thomas Overbury in the Tower. The king, however, pardoned them both. His next favourite was George Villiers, a private English gentleman, who, upon Somerset's disgrace, was admitted to an unusual share of favour and familiarity with his sovereign.

Having formed a system of policy for attaching himself to the court of Spain, that it might assist him in recovering the palatinate, James sacrificed to that system the brave sir Walter Raleigh, on a charge of having committed hostilities against the Spanish settlements in the West Indies. This great man finding his fate inevitable, collected all his courage, and acted the concluding scene of his life with bravery and resolution.

Feeling

Feeling the edge of the axe by which he was to be beheaded, he said, "'Tis a sharp remedy, but a sure one, for all ills." He harangued the people in a calm and eloquent manner, and laying his head upon the block, with the utmost composure, received the fatal blow.

The king having lost his eldest son Henry prince of Wales, who had an invincible antipathy to a popish match, cast his eyes upon the infanta of Spain, as a proper wife for his son Charles, who had succeeded to that principality. Buckingham, who was a favourite both with the father and the son, availing himself of the prince's romantic humour, proposed a secret expedition to the court of Madrid, as an act of gallantry which would render him more agreeable to the infanta, and give him an opportunity of seeing her person before their irrevocable union took place. The mind of the young prince was immediately inflamed with the idea, and, in an imprudent moment of conviviality, they set out for Madrid, in disguise, with only three attendants. As they passed through Paris, they ventured to go to a ball at court, where Charles saw the princess Henrietta, whom he afterwards espoused, and who was at that time in the bloom of youth and beauty. In eleven days after their departure from London, they arrived at Madrid, and surprised every body by a step so unusual among great princes. The young prince was received by the Spanish monarch with every token of respect and attention, and by his prudent demeanour, during his residence there, joined to his youth and advantageous figure, endeared himself to the whole court. Buckingham, however, who had rendered himself odious to the Spaniards by his arrogance, dreading the influence which that nation would acquire after the arrival of the infanta, used all his credit to prevent the match, when Charles, after acting a solemn farce of courtship, returned without his bride; and had it not been for the royal partiality in his favour, the earl of  
Bristol

Bristol, then ambaffador in Spain, would have brought the duke of Buckingham to the block.

The opposition made by parliament to the king's prerogative, which James exerted in many instances to an unusual degree, was at this time carried to a great height, and laid the foundation of those fatal struggles between the crown and people, which took place in the subsequent reign. The two parties, called *Whigs* and *Tories* were now formed.

James died in 1625, in the 59th year of his age, after a reign over England of 22 Years. His reign over Scotland was almost of equal duration with his life. In all history, it would be difficult to find a reign less illustrious, yet more unblemished, than that of James in both kingdoms. While he imagined that he was only maintaining his own authority, he encroached on the liberties of his people; and while he endeavoured, by an exact neutrality, to acquire the good-will of all his neighbours, he was able to preserve fully the esteem of none. His intentions were just, but more adapted to the conduct of private life, than to the government of a great nation. His generosity bordered on profusion, his learning on pedantry, his pacific disposition on pusillanimity, his wisdom on cunning, his friendship on light fancy and boyish fondness.

Charles I. was born at Dumfermling, in Scotland, in 1600, and succeeded his father James I. in 1625, when he married Henrietta of France, the daughter of Henry IV. The spirit of the people had forced the late king into a breach with Spain, and Charles gave so early indications of his despotic temper, that the parliament was remiss in furnishing him with money for carrying on the war. Having sent troops to assist the French calvinists, they were so ill supported, that Rochelle was reduced to extremity, by which the protestant interest received an irrecoverable blow in France. The blame of all the public miscarriages was

was thrown upon Buckingham, who sheltered himself under the royal protection, till he was assassinated by one Felton, a subaltern officer, as he was ready to embark for the relief of Rochelle, which soon after surrendered to cardinal Richlieu.

The death of the duke of Buckingham did not deter Charles from his arbitrary proceedings, which the English patriots in that enlightened age, justly considered as so many acts of tyranny. Without authority of parliament, he laid arbitrary impositions upon trade, which were refused to be paid by many of the merchants and members of the house of commons. Some of them were imprisoned, and the judges were checked for admitting them to bail. The house of commons resented those proceedings by drawing up a protest, and denying admittance to the gentleman-usher of the black rod, who came to adjourn them till it was finished. This served only to widen the breach, and the king dissolved the parliament; after which he exhibited informations against nine of the most eminent members, among whom was the great Mr. Selden, who was as much distinguished by his love of liberty, as by his uncommon erudition. They objected to the jurisdiction of the court, but their plea was over-ruled, and they were sent to prison during the king's pleasure.

Every thing now operated towards the destruction of Charles. The commons would vote no supplies without some redress of the national grievances, upon which Charles, presuming on what had been practised in reigns when the principles of liberty were less understood, levied money upon monopolies of salt, soap, &c. and raised various taxes without authority of parliament.

About this time a great number of the puritans, tired of the restraint they experienced in England, embarked for America, and there laid the foundations of a government, which possessed all the liberty, both civil and

and religious, of which they found themselves bereaved in their native country. But at length their enemies prevailed on the king to put a stop to the peregrinations of these devotees. As John Hampden, John Pym, and Oliver Cromwell, were among those who were prevented, by an order of council, from going in some ships that lay ready to sail, the king had afterwards full leisure to repent this exercise of his authority.

Not long after, John Hampden acquired by his spirit and courage, universal popularity throughout the nation. Having been rated at twenty shillings ship-money, for an Estate which he possessed in the county of Buckingham, he resolved rather than tamely submit to so illegal an imposition, to stand a legal prosecution. The case was argued during twelve days, in the Exchequer Chamber, before all the judges of England. But though the arguments appeared to be in favour of Hampden, a majority of judges gave sentence for the crown. Hampden, however, obtained, by the trial, the end for which he had so generously sacrificed his safety and quiet. The people were roused from their lethargy, and became sensible of the danger to which their liberties were exposed.

In 1642, the king, in a solemn manner, set up his standard at Nottingham; and in 1645, was fought the famous battle of Naseby, which decided the quarrel between the king and the parliament, the forces of the latter having gained a complete victory. Upon the approach of lord Fairfax, to lay siege to Oxford, his majesty made his escape from thence, and threw himself into the hands of the Scottish army. Oxford surrendered in 1646, when the few remaining garrisons soon followed the example. The parliament then consulted how to get the king out of the hands of the Scots, and to send them back into their own country. After several debates about the disposal of his person,

person, the Scots having received 200,000*l.* delivered him up to the commissioners of the parliament of England, who were sent down to Newcastle to receive him. The same day their army began to march for Scotland, and the king was conducted to Holmby-house, in Northamptonshire. He was afterwards removed to Hampton-court, from whence he made his escape, and fled to the Isle-of Wight. He had not been long there, when a party of Cromwell's soldiers seized him, and conveyed him first to Hurst-castle, from thence to Windsor, and at last to London. Having carried him before a court of Justice of their own erecting, after an extraordinary trial, they passed sentence of death upon him, and he was beheaded before his own palace, at Whitehall, on the 30th of January, 1649, in the 49th year of his age, and the 24th of his reign.

Charles had many virtues, but he suffered himself to be guided by counsellors much inferior to himself in knowledge and judgment; whilst he paid too much deference to the advice of his consort, who was superstitiously attached to the errors of popery.

The dissolution of the monarchy in England, soon followed the death of their monarch. The peers met, and sent down their votes, as usual, to the commons, who did not deign to take the least notice of them; and in a few days, the lower house passed a vote, that the house of peers was useless and dangerous, and was therefore to be abolished. The commons then ordered a new great seal to be engraved, on which that assembly was represented, with this legend, *On the first year of freedom, by God's blessing, restored, 1649.* And the forms of all public business were changed, from the king's name, to that of the keepers of the liberties of England.

The confusions which overspread England after the death of Charles, and the unsettled humours of the people,

people, were only to be controuled by the great influence, both civil and military, acquired by Oliver Cromwell. This man, suited to the age in which he lived, and to that alone, was equally qualified to gain the affection and confidence of men, by what was mean, vulgar, and ridiculous in his character, as to command their obedience by what was great, daring and enterprising. Familiar even to buffoonery with the meanest centinel, he never lost his authority. Transported to a degree of madness with religious extasies, he never forgot the political purposes, to which that might serve. So that in a short time, the commonwealth, of which, even at this early period, he was the chief conductor, found every thing composed into a seeming tranquillity.

Being the son of a private gentleman, at Huntingdon, Cromwell was chosen member for Cambridge in the long parliament, and being endowed with unshaken intrepidity, and much dissimulation, he rose, through the gradations of preferment, to the post of lieutenant-general under Fairfax. In 1649 he was sent general into Ireland, when, in about nine months, he subdued almost that whole kingdom, and leaving his son-in-law, Ireton, to complete the conquest, returned to England. In 1650, he was appointed commander in chief of all the commonwealth, and set out on his march against the Scots, who had espoused the royal cause, and placed young Charles, the son of their late monarch, on the throne. In 1651, he totally defeated the royalists at Worcester, when the king himself was obliged to flee.

Numberless were the difficulties which Charles encountered in order to elude the search of his enemies. At Boscobel, a lone house on the borders of Staffordshire, he was secreted by one Penderell, a farmer. And for his better concealment, he got up into an oak, where he sheltered himself 24 hours. This tree was afterwards

afterwards denominated *The Royal Oak*, and for many years was regarded by the neighbourhood with great veneration. At length, after a variety of adventures and sufferings, he landed safely at Fes-camp, in Normandy, no less than forty persons having at different times been privy to his escape.

Admiral Blake, and other naval officers, now carried the terror of the English name by sea to all quarters of the globe, while Cromwell, having but little employment, began to be afraid that his services would be forgotten. He went therefore without any ceremony, with about 300 musqueteers, and dissolved the parliament, after having loaded the members with the vilest reproaches, for their tyranny, ambition, oppression, and robbery of the public. He next annihilated the council of state, with whom the executive power was lodged, and transferred the administration of government to 140 persons whom he summoned to Whitehall. Being in a short time declared *lord protector of the commonwealth*, Cromwell exercised greater power under that title; than had ever been annexed to the regal dignity. He gave the command of all the forces in Scotland to general Monk, and sent his own son, Henry, to govern Ireland.

The court of Spain having long courted in vain the friendship of the successful usurper, applied at last to king Charles, who had removed his small court to Bruges; and that prince raised four regiments of his own subjects, whom he employed in the Spanish service. The protector sent over into Flanders 6000 men, who joined the French army under marshal Turenne. A battle was fought, in which the Spaniards were totally defeated, and Dunkirk, being soon after surrendered, was by agreement delivered to Cromwell.

The protector, however, reaped very little satisfaction from the success of his arms abroad. The situa-  
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tion, in which he stood at home, kept him in perpetual inquietude. Having deceived every party, he had lost the confidence of all. But what gave him most concern was the estrangement of his family. Fleetwood, his son-in-law, was enraged to discover that he entertained views of promoting his own grandeur, more than of encouraging piety and religion, of which he made such fervent professions. Mrs. Fleetwood, his eldest daughter, was so violent a republican, that she could not with patience behold power lodged in a single person, even in her indulgent father. His other daughters were no less prejudiced in favour of the royal cause. Above all, the sickness and death of Mrs. Claypole, his peculiar favourite, who, on her death bed, upbraided her father with all his sanguinary measures, added to his anxiety.

All composure of mind was now for ever fled from the protector. The aspect of strangers was uneasy to him. He never moved a step without guards, and seldom slept above three nights together in the same chamber. Society terrified him, and solitude was not to be born. His health sensibly declined, and he was A. D. 1658. seized with a slow fever, which terminated in his death; in the 60th year of his age, and the 5th of his protectorship. As he had, when nearly speechless, expressed a wish that his son Richard should succeed him, the council immediately recognised his succession. Fleetwood, in whose favour, it was supposed, Cromwell had formerly made a will, renounced all pretensions to the protectorship. Henry, Richard's brother, who governed Ireland with popularity, ensured him the obedience of that kingdom. Monk proclaimed him in Scotland. The army and fleet acknowledged his title. Foreign ministers paid him the usual compliments. And Richard, whose unambitious character would never have led him to contend for empire, was tempted to accept of so rich an

an inheritance, which seemed to be tendered to him by the consent of all mankind. But as he wanted resolution, and possessed none of those arts which were proper to gain an enthusiastic army, he soon signed his own abdication.

Thus suddenly fell the family of the Cromwells. Richard continued to possess a moderate estate, and extended his peaceful and quiet life to an extreme old age. His social virtues, more valuable than the greatest capacity, met with a recompense more precious than noisy fame.

The restoration of monarchy was effected by a general concurrence of the people, who seem to have thought that neither peace nor protection were to be obtained, till the ancient constitution was established. General Monk, a man of military abilities, had the sagacity to observe this, and, having rendered himself A. D. 1660. absolute master of the parliament, restored Charles II. after an exile of twelve years, in France and Holland. Being born on the 29th of May, 1630, Charles was now thirty years of age, possessed of a good shape, a manly figure, and a graceful air. His whole demeanour and behaviour was well qualified to support and increase the popularity he had acquired. To a lively wit and quick comprehension, he united a just understanding, and a general observation both of men and things. The easiest manners, the most unaffected politeness, the most engaging gaiety, accompanied his conversation and address. Accustomed, during his exile, to live among his courtiers rather like a companion than a monarch, he retained on the throne the same open affability. And being totally devoid of resentment, as well from the natural lenity as carelessness of his temper, he insured pardon to the most guilty of his enemies.

One of the first steps of Charles's government was to pass an act of general indemnity. Those who had  
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an immediate hand in the late king's death, were excepted. Even Cromwell, Ireton, Bradshaw, and others, now dead, were attainted, and their estates forfeited. Vane and Lambert, though none of the regicides, were also excepted. Ten only out of four-score were devoted to immediate destruction. And these were all the severities which followed such furious civil wars and convulsions. Charles knew and cultivated the true interests of his kingdom, till he was warped by pleasure, and sunk in indolence. He has been severely censured for selling Dunkirk to the French king for 250,000*l.* sterling, to supply his necessities, after he had squandered the immense sums granted him by parliament. Among the evidences of his degeneracy as a king may be mentioned his giving way to the popular clamour against the lord chancellor Clarendon, as the chief adviser of the sale of Dunkirk. Though his lordship was a man of extensive knowledge and great abilities, and more honest in his intentions than most of his other ministers, Charles sacrificed him to the sycophants of his pleasurable hours. The great seal being taken from him, he withdrew into France, where he lived in a private manner, and survived his banishment six years.

The first Dutch war, which began in 1665, was carried on with great resolution and spirit under the duke of York ; but Charles having misapplied the public money which had been granted for the prosecution of it, the Dutch, while a treaty of peace was depending, insulted the royal navy of England. They sailed up the river Medway, as far as Chatham, made themselves masters of Sheerness, and burnt several men of war, together with a magazine full of stores. Notwithstanding this treacherous affront, Charles concluded a treaty at Breda, by which the colony of New York, in North America, was ceded by the Dutch to the English.

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In 1678, the famous Titus Oates, and some others, opened a plot, charging the papists with a design to murder the king, and to introduce popery. Though nothing could be more ridiculous, than some parts of their narrative, yet it was supported with the utmost zeal on the part of the parliament, when the aged lord Strafford, Coleman, secretary to the duke of York, and other papists were executed. The duke himself was obliged to leave the country.

The earl of Shaftesbury, who was at the head of the opposition, pushed on the total exclusion of the duke of York from the throne. He was seconded by the ill-advised duke of Monmouth, and the bill, after passing the commons, miscarried in the house of peers. All England was again in a flame. Lord Russell, who had been remarkable in his opposition to the popish succession, Algernon Sidney, and several other distinguished protestants were tried, condemned, and suffered death. Even the city of London was intimidated into the measures of the court, and the duke of York returned in triumph to Whitehall. It was thought, however, that Charles repented of some of his arbitrary steps, and intended to have recalled the duke of Monmouth, as well as to have taken some measures for the future quiet of his reign, when he was seized with a sudden fit of illness, and after languishing a few days, expired in the 55th year of his age, and the 25th of his reign. He had married Catharine, infanta of Portugal, by whom he had received a large fortune in ready money, besides the town and fortress of Tangier in Africa; but he left behind him no lawful issue. The descendants of his natural sons and daughters are now amongst the most distinguished of the British nobility.

On the death of Charles, his brother the duke of York was immediately proclaimed king, under the title of James II. The popular affection towards him was

was increased by the early declaration he made in favour of the church of England, which, during the late reign, had formally pronounced all resistance to the reigning king to be unlawful. Soon after his accession, however, the duke of Monmouth, natural son of the late king, landed at Lyme, in Dorsetshire, with only 83 followers, and published a declaration, that his sole motive for taking arms, was, to preserve the protestant religion; and to deliver the nation from the usurpation of James. He affirmed likewise that his mother was actually married to Charles II. Having thus raised an army in the west of England, he attacked the king's forces, at Sedgemoor, near Bridgewater; and had it not been for his own misconduct and the cowardice of lord Gray, he might have gained a decisive victory. Though Gray and the cavalry fled in the beginning of the action, the undisciplined infantry gallantly maintained the combat for three hours, when 1400 of them were killed in the battle and pursuit, and nearly an equal number made prisoners.

Monmouth fled from the field till his horse sunk under him, and was at last found lying in a ditch, covered with fern. When seized by his enemies, he burst into tears. He wrote the most submissive letters to the king, and conjured him to spare the issue of a brother, who had ever been attached to his interest. But James was inexorable. This favourite of the people was attended to the scaffold with a plentiful effusion of tears. He warned the executioner not to fall into the error, which he had committed in beheading lord Russel. The precaution served only to dismay the executioner, who struck a feeble blow. The duke raised his head from the block, and looked in his face, as if to reproach him. He then gently laid down his head a second time, when the executioner struck him again and again to no purpose. The man now threw aside the axe, and cried out, that he was incapable

capable of finishing the bloody office. The sheriff obliged him to renew the attempt; and with two blows more the head was severed from the body. Thus perished, in the 36th year of his age, a nobleman, who, in less turbulent times, was well qualified to be an ornament to the court, and serviceable to his country.

Had this victory been managed with prudence by James, it would have tended much to increase his authority. But by reason of the cruelty with which it was prosecuted, and of the temerity with which it afterwards inspired him, it was the principal cause of his downfall. The savage colonel Kirk, on his first entry into Bridgewater, without the least enquiry into the nature of their guilt, ordered a great number of the prisoners to be executed, while he and his company should drink the king's health; and observing their feet to quiver in the agonies of death, he commanded the drums to beat, and the trumpets to sound, saying he would give them music to their dancing. About 250 of these unfortunate people afterwards fell a prey to the no less savage disposition of the cruel judge Jefferies, who was appointed to try them. James employed the most offensive measures for rendering popery the established religion of his dominions. He pretended to a power of dispensing with the known laws. He instituted an illegal ecclesiastical court, openly received and admitted into his privy-council the pope's emissaries, and treated them with uncommon respect. The imprisonment of seven bishops, who presented a petition against reading his declaration for liberty of conscience, greatly alarmed his protestant friends; and his encroachments upon the civil and religious rights of his subjects were disapproved, by the pope himself.

In this extremity, many great men in England and Scotland, applied for relief to William, prince of  
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Orange, a man of great abilities, and the inveterate enemy of Lewis XIV. who then threatened Europe with chains. Accordingly the prince, who was the nephew and son-in-law of James, embarked with a fleet of 500 sail for England, avowing it to be his design to restore the church and state to their due rights. Upon his arrival, he was joined not only by the Whigs, but by many whom James had considered as his best friends. Even his daughter, the princess Anne, and her husband, George prince of Denmark left him, and joined the prince of Orange.

Alarmed by so many proofs of a general disaffection, and not daring to repose trust in any one, the king embraced the resolution of escaping into France. He sent off before-hand the queen and the infant prince, under the conduct of the count Lauzun, an old favourite of the French monarch. He himself, soon after, disappeared in the night time, attended only by sir Edward Hales, and made the best of his way to a ship, which waited for him near the mouth of the Thames. But being seized by the populace at Feversham, he returned to Rochester, and from thence to London, where he was received with great acclamations. Urged, however, by his fears, he withdrew again to Rochester, from whence he privately retired to the sea coast, and embarking on board a frigate which waited for him, arrived safely at Ambleteuse in Picardy. He then hastened to St. Germain where he was received by Lewis, with the highest generosity, sympathy, and regard.

Thus the courage and abilities of the prince of Orange, seconded by surprising good fortune, effected the deliverance of this island, and dethroned a great prince, supported by a formidable fleet, and a numerous army. The succession of the crown still remained to be settled. Some advised the prince to claim it by right of conquest. A regent, with kingly power, was proposed

fed by others. But after being agitated with great zeal and ability, by the opposite parties, in the house of peers, the question was carried for a king, by two voices only. The convention, therefore, passed a bill, by which the crown was settled on the prince and princess of Orange, while the sole administration remained in the prince. To this settlement was annexed a declaration of rights, in which all the disputed points between the king and people, were finally determined. The powers of the royal prerogative were more narrowly circumscribed, and more exactly defined, than in any former period of the English government.

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## CHAP. II.

### ECCLESIASTICAL HISTORY.

**T**HE pacific reign of James I. was a series of theological contests, in which he shewed himself more the theologian than the prince. The religious disputes between the church and the puritans induced him to call a conference at Hampton court, on pretence of finding expedients which might reconcile both parties. It was the character of James's councils, through his whole reign, that they were more wise and equitable in their end, than prudent and political in the means. Though justly sensible, that no part of civil administration required greater care or a nicer judgment than the conduct of religious parties, he had not perceived, that in the same proportion as this practical knowledge of theology is requisite, the speculative refinements in it are mean and even dangerous in a monarch. By entering zealously into frivolous disputes, James gave them an air of importance and dignity, which they could not otherwise have acquired; and being himself enlisted in the quarrel, he could no longer



longer have recourse to contempt and ridicule, the only proper method of appeasing it. The puritans had not yet separated themselves from the church, nor openly renounced episcopacy. Though the spirit of the parties was considerably different, the principal subjects of dispute were concerning the cross in baptism, the ring in marriage, the use of the surplice, and the bowing at the name of Jesus. These were the mighty questions which were solemnly agitated, before the king and his ministers in the conference at Hampton-court, between some bishops and dignified clergymen on the one hand, and some leaders of the puritanical party on the other. The puritans complained of a partial and unfair management of the dispute. The king, it must be confessed, from the beginning of the conference shewed the strongest propensity to the established church, and frequently inculcated a maxim, which, though it has some foundation, is to be received with great limitations: *No Bishop, No King*. The bishops, in their turn, were very liberal of their praises towards the royal disputant; and the archbishop of Canterbury said, that *undoubtedly his majesty spake by the special assistance of God's spirit*.

In 1617, James attempted to establish episcopacy in Scotland, but the zeal of the people baffled his design. He must first have procured an acknowledgment of his own authority in all spiritual causes; and nothing could be more contrary to the practice as well as principles of the presbyterian clergy. The ecclesiastical courts possessed the power of pronouncing excommunication. That sentence, besides the spiritual consequences supposed to follow from it, was attended with immediate effects of the most important nature. The person excommunicated was shunned by every one as profane and impious. His whole estate, during his life time, and all his moveables, for ever, were forfeited to the crown. The king, therefore, could only  
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extort a vote from the general assembly of the kirk, for receiving certain ceremonies upon which his heart was more particularly set ; namely, kneeling at the sacrament, the private administration of it to sick persons, the confirmation of children, and the observance of christmas and other festivals. This constrained consent of the presbyterian clergy was belied by the inward sentiments of all ranks of people : even the few, over whom religious prejudices have less influence, thought national honour sacrificed by a servile imitation of the modes of worship practised in England.

In the reign of Charles I. when the commons of England proceeded to carry their scrutiny into his management of religion, his indignation was roused, and he dissolved the parliament. The commons, on this occasion, behaved with great boldness. As soon as they had the first intimation of the king's design from the speaker, who immediately left the chair, they pushed him back into it ; and two members held him there, until a short remonstrance was framed, and passed by acclamation rather than by vote. In that remonstrance, all who should seek to introduce popery or Arminianism, were declared enemies to the commonwealth.

The difference between the Arminian doctrines, and those of the established church ; related chiefly to the tenets of predestination and absolute decrees, which had been every where embraced by the first reformers, and were still maintained in all their rigour by the Puritans. The Arminians, by asserting the freedom of the human will, and diffusing other rational opinions, had rendered themselves obnoxious to these violent enthusiasts. Some of that sect had obtained the highest preferments in the church. Laud, Montague, and other bishops, the chief supporters of episcopal government, were all supposed to be tainted with Arminianism. The same men and their disciples, in return for the  
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favour shewn them by the court, were the strenuous preachers of passive obedience, and an unconditional submission to princes.

Charles, whose religion had a strong tincture of superstition in it, required a rigid conformity to the ancient ceremonies, to which he was prompted by Laud, bishop of London, whom he raised to the see of Canterbury, and invested with uncontrouled authority over the consciences of the people. The religion, which the archbishop wanted to establish, differed very little from that of the church of Rome. The Puritans therefore regarded him as the forerunner of antichrist. Nor were the Puritans singular in this opinion. A court lady, daughter of the earl of Devonshire, having turned catholic, was asked by Laud, her reason for changing her religion: "It is chiefly," answered she, "because I hate to travel in a croud." The meaning of these words being demanded, she replied, "I perceive your grace and many others are making haste to Rome; and therefore, in order to prevent my being jostled, I have gone before you." In a word, Laud's chief objection to popery seems to have been the supremacy of the holy see, to which he did not chuse to subject his metropolitan power. His ambition and bigotry, however, at last brought him to the block.

When Cromwell assumed the reigns of government, he granted an unbounded liberty of conscience, to all but catholics and episcopalians. He was most favourable to the independents. He paid also considerable attention to the millenarians or *fifth monarchy men*, who had great interest in the army, and whose narrow understanding and enthusiastic temper afforded full scope for the exercise of his pious deceptions. These men, while they anxiously expected the *second coming* of Christ, believed that the saints, among whom they considered themselves to stand in the first class, were only entitled to govern in the mean time. Cromwell, in conformity

conformity with this way of thinking, told them he had only stept in between the *living* and the *dead*, to keep the nation, during that interval, from becoming a prey to the *common enemy*.

Cromwell, in great measure conciliated the affection of the presbyterians, by joining them in a commission with some independents, to be triers of those that were to be admitted to benefices, and also to dispose of all the churches that were in the gift of the crown, of the bishops, and of the cathedral churches.

The candidates for holy orders were no more perplexed with questions concerning their progress in Greek and Roman erudition, or concerning their talent for profane arts and sciences. The chief object of scrutiny regarded their advances in grace, and fixing the critical moment of their conversion.

With the pretended saints of all denominations, Cromwell was familiar and easy. Laying aside the state of protector, which, on other occasions he well knew how to maintain, he insinuated to them, that nothing but necessity could ever oblige him to invest himself with it. He talked spiritually to them. He sighed, he wept, he canted, he prayed.

In the reign of Charles II. great rigour and severity were exercised against the presbyterians, and all other nonconformists to episcopacy, which was again established with a high hand, both in England and Scotland.

James II. more imprudent and more arbitrary than his predecessor, sent an ambassador extraordinary to Rome, in order to express his obeisance to the pope, and to reconcile his kingdoms to the catholic communion. The pontiff, instead of being pleased with this forward step, concluded that a scheme, conducted with so much indiscretion, could not be successful, and treated the embassy with neglect. The only proof of complaisance which James received from the pope, was  
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his sending a nuncio to England. Four catholic bishops were publicly consecrated in the king's chapel, and sent out under the title of vicars apostolical, to exercise the episcopal function in their respective dioceses. Their pastoral letters, directed to the lay catholics of England, were printed and dispersed by the express permission of the king. The regular clergy of that communion appeared at court in the habits of their order; and some of them were so indiscreet as to boast, that, in a little time, they hoped to walk in procession through the capital. This encouragement of popery soon deprived James of the crown, and made a witty courtier of Lewis XIV. say, "*There goes a simpleton, who lost three kingdoms for a mass.*"

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### CHAP. III.

#### GOVERNMENT.

**U**NDER the reign of the Stuarts, the nation began to recover from its long lethargy. James I. a prince rather imprudent than tyrannical, drew back the veil which had hitherto disguised so many usurpations, and made an ostentatious display of what his predecessors had been contented to enjoy. He asserted that the authority of *kings was not to be controuled*, any more than that of God himself. Like him, they were omnipotent; and those privileges, to which the people so clamorously laid claim as their inheritance and birth-right, were no more than an effect of the grace and toleration of his royal ancestors. These principles, announced from the throne, and resounded from the pulpit, spread an universal alarm. A new light had begun to rise upon the nation, through the extension of commerce and the art of printing, and a spirit of opposition frequently displayed itself in this reign, to which the British monarchs had not, for a long time, been

been accustomed. But the storm, which was only gathering in the clouds during the reign of James, began to vent itself under his successor, Charles the I. The general notions of religion, by a singular concurrence, uniting with the love of liberty, the same spirit, which had made an attack on the established faith, now directed itself to politics; and Charles had to cope with a whole nation put in motion, and directed by an assembly of statesmen. The compulsory loans and taxes, disguised under the name of *benevolences*, were declared to be contrary to law; arbitrary imprisonments, and the exercise of the martial law, were abolished; the court of high commission, and the star-chamber, were suppressed; and the constitution, freed from the apparatus of despotic powers, with which the Tudors had obscured it, was restored to its ancient lustre. Charles could not reconcile himself to limitations and restraints so injurious, according to his notions, to sovereign authority. His discourse and conduct betrayed his secret design. Distrust took possession of the nation. The storm burst forth. The tempest blew from every point of the compass. The constitution was rent asunder, and Charles exhibited in his fall an awful example to the universe.

The royal authority being thus annihilated, the English made fruitless attempts to substitute a republican government in its stead. Subjected, at first, to the power of the principal leaders in the long parliament, they saw that power expire, only to pass, without bounds, into the hands of a protector. Charles II. was therefore called over. But this monarch appearing to be bent upon the recovery of the ancient powers of the crown, the nation soon saw into his designs, and resolved to take away those remnants of despotism, which still made a part of regal prerogative. The laws against heretics were repealed; the statute for holding *triennial parliaments* was enacted; and the

*habeas corpus* act, that barrier of personal safety, was established.

On the death of Charles, began a reign which affords a most exemplary lesson both to kings and people. James II. hurried away by a spirit of despotism and monkish zeal, not only extorted from his subjects unlimited obedience, but sought to establish on the ruins of a religion, held most dear by the nation, a mode of faith which repeated acts of the legislature had proscribed. The people, seeing their liberty thus attacked, even in its first principles, had recourse to that remedy which reason and nature pointed out. They withdrew the allegiance, which they had sworn to James, and thought themselves absolved from their oath to a king, who himself disregarded the oath he had made to his subjects. The throne was now declared vacant, and a new line of succession established, when an advantage was taken of the rare opportunity of entering into a *compact* between king and people. The revolution of 1688, therefore, is the third grand æra in the history of the English constitution. The great charter had marked out the limits within which the royal authority ought to be confined; some outworks were raised in the reign of Edward I. but the circumvallation was not completed till the revolution.

## CHAP. IV.

### LEARNING.

THE reign of James I. was distinguished by the labours of many eminent authors, both in prose and verse, but mostly in a bad taste. The pun was common in the pulpit, and the quibble was propagated from the throne. His *Basilicon Doron*, however, and all his speeches to parliament evince, that James possessed no mean genius. If he wrote concerning  
witches

witches and apparitions, who in that age did not admit the reality of these fictitious beings? The great glory of literature, during this reign, was lord Bacon. If we consider the variety of talents displayed by this man, as a public speaker, a man of business, a wit, a courtier, a companion, an author, and a philosopher, he is justly the object of our admiration.

Charles I. was a good judge of writing, and was thought by some more anxious about purity of style, than became a monarch. In his turbulent reign, men of vast abilities made their appearance. Then the force and compass of our language were first fully tried in the public papers of the king and parliament, and in the bold eloquence of the speeches of the two parties. Then was roused, in political and theological controversy, the vigorous genius of John Milton, which afterward broke forth with so much lustre in the poem of *Paradise Lost*, unquestionably the greatest effort of human imagination. No poet, ancient or modern, is so sublime in his conceptions as Milton; and few have ever equalled him in boldness of description, or strength of expression.

Cromwell, though himself a barbarian, was not insensible to literary merit. Usher, though a bishop, received a pension from him. Marvel and Milton were in his service. Waller, his relation, was caressed by him, and always said, that the Protector was not so illiterate, as people commonly imagined. He intended to have erected a college at Durham for the benefit of the northern counties. It must however, be confessed, that the wretched fanaticism, which so much infected the parliamentary party, was no less destructive of taste and science, than of all law and order. Gaiety and wit were proscribed. Human learning was generally despised. Freedom of enquiry was detested. Cant and hypocrisy alone were encouraged.

Amidst the thick cloud of enthusiasm, which over-  
spread



spread the nation, during the commonwealth and protectorship, there were a few sedate philosophers, who in the retirement of Oxford, cultivated their reason, and established conferences for the mutual communication of their discoveries in physick and geometry. The celebrated Boyle, and Wilkins, a clergyman, who had married Cromwell's sister, and was afterwards bishop of Chester, promoted these philosophical conversations. Immediately after the restoration, these men procured a patent, and, having enlarged their number, were denominated the *Royal Society*. But this patent was all they obtained from the king. Though Charles was a great lover of the sciences, particularly chemistry and mechanics, he animated them by his example alone, not by his bounty. His craving courtiers and mistresses, by whom he was perpetually surrounded, engrossed all his expence, and left him neither money nor attention for literary merit. His contemporary, Lewis XIV. far exceeded him in liberality. Besides pensions conferred on learned men throughout all Europe, his academies were directed by rules, and supported by salaries.

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## CHAP. V.

### THE ARTS.

**A**GRICULTURE, for many centuries, was very imperfect in Britain. The sudden transitions so often mentioned by historians, from the lowest to the highest price of grain, and the prodigious inequality of its value, in different years, are sufficient proofs, that the produce depended on the seasons, and that art contributed very little to guard against the injuries of the heavens. Considerable improvements were now made in this beneficial art. A numerous catalogue might be  
formed

formed of books and pamphlets, treating of husbandry, written about this time. The nation, however, was still dependant on foreigners for daily bread. Though the exportation of grain afterwards formed a considerable branch of its commerce, there was in this period a regular importation from the Baltic, as well as from France; and if it ever stopped, the bad consequences were sensibly felt by the nation. Two millions sterling went out at one time for corn. It was not till the fifth of Elizabeth; that the exportation of corn had been allowed in England; and Camden observes, that agriculture, from that moment, received new life and vigour.

Before the civil wars, agriculture and the fine arts were favoured at court, and a good taste began to prevail in the nation, under the auspices of Charles I. Inigo Jones was master of the king's buildings. He was afterwards persecuted by parliament, on account of the part which he had in rebuilding St. Paul's, and for obeying some orders of council, by which he was directed to pull down houses, in order to make room for that edifice. Charles, notwithstanding his narrow revenue, and his freedom from all vanity, lived in such magnificence, that he possessed 24 elegantly furnished palaces, so that when he removed from one to another, he had no occasion to take any thing with him. The king loved pictures, sometimes handled the pencil himself, and was a connoisseur in the art. The pieces of foreign masters were bought up at a vast price. The value of pictures was doubled in Europe, by the emulation between Charles and Philip IV. of Spain, who were touched by the same elegant passion. Vandyke was caressed and enriched at court. Laws, who had not been surpassed by any musician before him, was much beloved by the king, who called him the father of music.

In poetry, Waller, whose taste was formed under the

the first Charles, and who wrote during the brightest days of the second, is one of the chief refiners of our versification, as well as language. Lee, whose dramatic talent was great, introduced into blank verse that solemn pomp of sound, which was long much affected by our modern tragic poets. The pathetic Otway brought tragedy down to the level of domestic life, and exemplified that simplicity of expression, so well suited to the language of the tender passions. But Otway, in other respects, is by no means so chaste a writer; nor was the reign of Charles II. though crowded with men of genius, the æra either of good taste or of delicate sentiments.

The painters were not more chaste than the poets. Nymphs bathing, or voluptuously reposing on the verdant sod, were the common objects of the pencil. Even the female portraits of sir Peter Lely, who was patronised by the king on his restoration, are more calculated to provoke loose desire, than to impress the mind with any idea of the reputable qualities of the ladies they were intended to represent.

## CHAP. VI.

### BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES.

**S**IR *Walter Raleigh*, an illustrious navigator and historian, born in 1552, did eminent services to queen Elizabeth, particularly in the discovery of Virginia, and in the defeat of the Spanish Armada. He lived in full happiness and honour during her reign; but on the accession of king James, he lost his interest at court, and being unaccountably accused of high treason, was condemned to die. By the interest of his friends, however, he was reprieved, and committed prisoner to the tower of London, where he wrote his  
*"History"*

*"History of the World,"* a work of such uncommon merit, that it procured his releasement. He then received a commission from the king, to go and explore the golden mines at Guiana, where his eldest son Walter was killed by the Spaniards, and the Town of St. Thomas burnt by captain Keymis. Upon this, count Gondamar, the Spanish ambassador, making heavy complaints to the king, in order to appease him, sir Walter was apprehended in Devonshire, his native county, and condemned on his former attainder, an instance of injustice and cruelty unparalleled in our annals. It gave the highest offence then, and has ever since been mentioned with general indignation. He suffered decapitation with great fortitude, in Old Palace-yard, Westminster. A. D. 1618.

About the same time died *lord Napier, a Scottish nobleman*, who distinguished himself by the invention of logarithms. He also discovered the arithmetical rods which go by his name. His lordship was not only an able mathematician, but a learned theologian, and wrote a curious book on the Revelations.

*William Camden*, who died in 1623, has rendered his name immortal by a work, entitled *Britannia*, being a history of the ancient inhabitants of Britain, their origin, manners, and laws. In 1593, he was appointed head master of Westminster school, while he enjoyed a prebend in Salisbury cathedral, without being in orders. Mr. Hume says, that his *Life of Queen Elizabeth*, "is the best historical production of any Englishman."

*Lord chancellor Bacon*, viscount of St. Alban's, *the father of experimental philosophy*, was one of the greatest and most universal geniuses that any age or country ever produced. He was noticed when a child by queen Elizabeth, and gave such early indications of his future eminence, that she used to call him her "young lord-keeper." Being accused of bribery and corruption

corruption in his high office, in the reign of James I. he was fined 40,000*l.* and sentenced to be confined in the Tower during the king's pleasure. He was soon restored to liberty, had his fine remitted, and was summoned to the first parliament of Charles I. It must not be omitted that the greatest part of the blame attaches to his servants. Of this he was so sensible, that during his trial, as he passed through the room where his domestics were sitting, when they all rose up on his entrance, he said, "Sit down, my masters, your rise hath been my fall." After his disgrace he went into retirement, where he devoted himself to his beloved studies. He died in 1626. His writings, which are an inestimable treasure of sound wisdom, were published in an elegant form, in 1778.

*Sir Edward Coke*, lord chief justice of England, who died in 1634, was a very eminent lawyer. His *Institutes*, in four parts, are invaluable. The first part is a comment on sir Thomas Littleton's Tenures. He met with many changes of fortune; was sometimes in power, and sometimes in disgrace. He was, however, so excellent at making the best of a disgrace, that king James used to compare him to a cat, who always fell upon her legs.

*Benjamin Jonson*, after being a bricklayer, and a soldier, acquired great celebrity as a dramatic writer, with the assistance of his friend Shakespeare. At the accession of James I. he had the honor of preparing the device for the entertainment of the king, in his passage from the Tower to Westminster abbey. In 1621 he was appointed poet-laureat, when the annual salary of 100 marks was raised to 100*l.* He died in 1637, and on his grave stone, in Westminster abbey, is the following inscription,

"O! Rare Ben Jonson!"

*John Hampden*, a celebrated patriot, in the reign of Charles I. distinguished himself by his opposition to the

the

the payment of ship money, by which he acquired great popularity. Having obtained a seat in the house of commons, he soon became a leading man, and at the commencement of the civil war, took up arms against the royalists, but was cut off early by a mortal wound, which he received by a pistol bursting in his hand, in a skirmish with prince Rupert. A. D. 1643. When passive obedience and non-resistance were disgraced by law, he was esteemed by both parties as a great and a good man. Mr. Gray, in his incomparable elegy, has painted him in the glorious colours of a warm and active patriot,

——— who with dauntless breast,

“The little tyrant of his fields withstood.”

*Inigo Jones*, a famous architect, who died in 1651, was surveyor general of the royal works, and had the management of the masques and interludes for the entertainment of the court. This brought him into a squabble with Ben Jonson, his coadjutor, who ridiculed him in his comedy of *Bartholomew-fair*, under the name of *Lantern Leatherhead*. He designed the palace of Whitehall, the Banqueting house, and several other buildings.

*William Harvey*, physician to Charles I. discovered the circulation of the blood, and the motion of the heart in animals. This discovery made a great revolution in the science of physic, and many foreign practitioners endeavoured to rob the author of his due honour, by ascribing it to other persons, and among the rest to father Paul of Venice. But the right of our learned countryman has long since been fully established. He died in 1657.

*Abraham Cowley*, who died in 1667, was a poet of great ingenuity and vigour of thought. “Of all authors,” says Mr. Addison, “none ever abounded so much in wit, according to Locke’s true definition of it, as Cowley.” His prose writings please, by the honesty

neſty and goodneſs which they expreſs, and even by their ſpleen and melancholy.

Sir *John Denham*, whoſe *Cooper's Hill* has been commended by all men of taſte, died in 1668. With reference to this poem, Dr. Johnson ſays that "he ſeems to have been the author of a ſpecies of compoſition that may be denominated local poetry, of which the fundamental ſubject is ſome particular landscape, to be poetically deſcribed, with the addition of ſuch embellishments as may be ſupplied by hiſtorical retroſpect, or incidental meditation."

*John Milton*, who died in 1674, during a ſtate of poverty, blindneſs, diſgrace, danger, and old age, compoſed that wonderful poem, *Paradiſe Loſt*, which not only ſurpaſſed all the performances of his contemporaries, but all the compoſitions, which had flowed from his pen, during the vigour of his age, and the height of his proſperity. This circumſtance is not the leaſt remarkable of all thoſe which attend that great genius. It is well known, that this great man never enjoyed in his life-time the reputation which he deſerved. Whitlocke talks of one Milton, as he calls him, a blind man, who was employed in tranſlating a treaty with Sweden into Latin. Theſe forms of expreſſion are amusing to poſterity, who conſider how obſcure Whitlocke himſelf, though lordkeeper, and an ambaffador, has become in compariſon of Milton. He had three daughters, two of whom uſed to read to him in eight languages, though they underſtood none but their mother tongue. Milton was ſo handſome, that at Cambridge he was called, "*The Lady of Chriſt College.*"

*Edward Hyde*, earl of Clarendon, and lord chancellor of England, has immortalized his name by a hiſtory of the rebellion in the time of Charles I. An air of probity and goodneſs runs through this work; as theſe qualities did in reality embellish the life of the author.

author. He was afterwards, however, impeached of high treason, and fled to France, where he died in 1674.

*James Gregory*, an eminent Scottish mathematician, who invented the reflecting telescope, the burning concave mirror, and the quadrature of the circle by an infinite converging series, died in 1675. He was educated at the university of Aberdeen.

The *Rev. Dr. Isaac Barrow*, who died in 1677, was an excellent divine, and mathematician. When the king advanced him to the dignity of master of Trinity college, Cambridge, his majesty was pleased to say, "he had given it to the best scholar in England." He was succeeded in the mathematical chair, which he resigned upon this appointment, by his illustrious pupil sir Isaac Newton. As a proof of his wit, we are told the following story. Meeting lord Rochester one day at court, his lordship, by way of banter, thus accosted him: "Doctor, I am your's to my shoe-tie." Barrow, seeing his aim, returned his salute as obsequiously, with "My lord, I am your's to the ground." Rochester, improving his blow, quickly returned it, with "Doctor, I am your's to the centre;" which was as smartly followed by Barrow, with "My lord I am your's to the antipodes." Upon which, Rochester, scorning to be foiled, exclaimed, "Doctor, I am your's to the infernal regions." On which Barrow turning on his heel, answered, "There my lord, I leave you."

The inimitable *Samuel Butler* lived for some time, in the capacity of steward, with sir Samuel Luke, a famous commander under Oliver Cromwell. It is thought that he intended to ridicule this knight under the character of *Hudibras*. It is surprising how much erudition Butler has introduced, with so good a grace, into a work of pleasantry and humour. *Hudibras* is one of the most learned compositions in any language. No performance whatever abounds so much in strokes  
of



of true wit and satire. The advantage, which the royal cause received from this poem, in exposing the fanaticism and false pretences of the former parliamentary party, was prodigious. The king himself had so good a taste as to be highly pleased with the merit of the work, and had even got a great part of it by heart. Yet was he either so careless in his temper, or so little endowed with gratitude, that he allowed the author, who was a man of virtue and probity, to live in obscurity, and die in want. Butler died in 1680.

*Algernon Sidney*, a celebrated patriot, and political writer, was a violent opposer of Cromwell after he became protector. He set up Marcus Brutus for his pattern, and died like him in the cause of liberty. A false accusation being brought against him for being concerned in the rye-house plot, he was tried by judge Jefferies and a packed jury, when he was found guilty, and executed on tower-hill, in 1683.

*Edmund Waller*, the parent of English verse, and the first who shewed us that our language had beauty and numbers in it, died in 1687. He was very intimate with Cromwell, upon whom he wrote a panegyric. He was, however, treated with great respect by Charles II. at the restoration, and afterwards sat in several parliaments.

The Hon. *Robert Boyle*, a most distinguished philosopher and exemplary man, died in 1691. He was one of the first of those illustrious men, who formed the royal society, for the purpose of improving experimental knowledge upon the plan, laid down by the great Bacon. He improved the air pump and discovered several qualities of the air. His philosophical writings and his curious experiments in chemistry, have secured him immortal fame.

## CHAP. VII.

## COMMERCE.

**T**HE reign of James I. is memorable by the commencement of the American colonies, established on the noblest footing that has been known in any age or nation. Peopled gradually from England by the necessitous and indigent, who at home increased neither wealth nor population, the colonies which were planted along that tract, have promoted the navigation, encouraged the industry, and even, perhaps, multiplied the inhabitants of their mother country. The spirit of independency, which was revived in England, here shone forth in its full lustre, and received new accession from the aspiring character of those who, being discontented with the established church and monarchy, had sought for freedom amidst those savage deserts.

The East-India company, having received a new patent from James, enlarged their stock to 1,500,000 pounds, and fitted out several ships on these advantages. In 1609, they built a vessel of 1200 ton, the largest merchant-ship that England had ever known. She was unfortunate, and perished by shipwreck.

England acquired much more respect from foreign powers, between the death of Charles I. and that of Cromwell, than she had been treated with since the days of Elizabeth. This was owing to the great men who formed the republic, which Cromwell abolished, and who, as it were instantaneously called forth the naval strength of the kingdom. Monopolies of all kinds were abolished, and liberty of conscience to all sects was granted, to the vast advantage of population and manufactures, which had suffered greatly during the civil wars.

From the restoration to the revolution, commerce and riches had a rapid increase. The two dutch wars,  
by

by disturbing the trade of that republic, promoted the navigation of this island; and after Charles had made a separate peace with the states, his subjects enjoyed unmolested the trade of Europe. The only disturbance, which they met with, was from a few French privateers, who infested the channel, because Charles did not interpose in behalf of his people with sufficient spirit and vigour.

Copper halfpence and farthings began to be coined in the reign of James I. Most of the silver pennies having disappeared, tradesmen were obliged to carry on their retail business chiefly by means of leaden tokens. The coins of Cromwell exceed in beauty and workmanship, any of that age. James II. coined gold pieces of the value of five pounds.

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## CHAP. VIII.

### MANNERS.

**I**N the reign of James I. family pride very much prevailed. The gentry and nobility distinguished themselves from the common people, by a dignity and stateliness of behaviour. Great riches, acquired by commerce, were more rare, and had not as yet been able to confound all ranks of men, and render money the chief foundation of distinction. The expences of the higher ranks consisted in pomp and show, and a numerous retinue, rather than in convenience and true pleasure. The earl of Nottingham, in his embassy to Spain, was attended by 500 persons. Civil honours, which now hold the first place, were at that time subordinate to the military. The young gentry and nobility were fond of distinguishing themselves by arms. The fury of duels too prevailed more than at any time before or since. This was the turn that the romantic

mantic chivalry, for which the nation was formerly so renowned, had lately taken.

The first sedan chair seen in England was in this reign, and was used by the duke of Buckingham, to the great indignation of the people, who exclaimed that he was employing his fellow-creatures to do the service of beasts.

Though the country life was then much more generally embraced by all the gentry than at present, the increase of arts, pleasures, and social commerce, was just beginning to produce an inclination for the softer and the more civilized life of the city. James discouraged, as much as possible, this alteration of manners. He would often say to them, "Gentlemen, at London, you are like ships in a sea, which show like nothing; but in your country villages you are like ships in a river, which look like great things." James thought that, by their living together, they became more sensible of their own strength, and were apt to indulge too curious researches into matters of government. To remedy this evil, he wished to disperse them into their country seats; where, he hoped they would bear a more submissive reverence to his authority, and receive less support from each other. But the contrary effect soon followed. The riches, amassed during their residence at home, rendered them independent. The influence acquired by hospitality made them formidable. They would not be led by the court. They could not be driven. And thus the system of the English government soon after underwent a total change.

Could human nature ever reach happiness, the condition of the English gentry, under so mild and benign a prince, might merit that appellation. They were engaged in no expence, except that of country hospitality. No taxes were levied, no wars waged, no attendance at court expected, no bribery or profusion required at elections. They were ambitious of representing the  
counties,

counties, but careless of the boroughs. A seat in the house was in itself of small importance; but the former became a point of honour among the gentlemen.

The king did not affect splendid equipages, nor costly furniture, nor a luxurious table; nor prodigal mistresses. His buildings too were not sumptuous; though the banqueting-house must not be forgotten, as a monument which does honour to his reign. Hunting was his chief amusement, the cheapest pleasure in which a king can indulge himself. His expences were the effects of liberality, rather than of luxury. One day, it is said while he was standing amidst some of his courtiers, a porter passed by loaded with money, which he was carrying to the treasury. The king observed, that Rich, afterwards earl of Holland, one of his favorites, whispered something to one standing near him. Upon enquiry he found that Rich had said, *How happy would that money make me!* Without hesitation James bestowed it all upon him, though it amounted to 3000 pounds. He added, *I think myself very happy in having an opportunity of obliging a worthy man, whom I love.* The generosity of James was more the result of a benign humour or light fancy, than of reason or judgment. The objects of it were such as could render themselves agreeable to him in his loose hours; not such as were endowed with great merit, or who possessed talents or popularity, which could strengthen his interest with the public.

By the industry and frugality introduced, during the commonwealth, among the people in general, and the citizens in particular, they were enabled to augment their capitals. It appears, however, that Cromwell, had he lived, and been firmly settled in the government, would have broken through the sober maxims of the republicans; for some time before his death, he affected great magnificence in his person, court, and attendants. Charles II. was a man of social temper,  
of

of an easy address, and a lively and animated conversation. His courtiers partook much of the character of their prince. They were chiefly men of the world, and many of them distinguished by their wit, gallantry and spirit. But having all experienced the insolence of puritanical tyranny, or been exposed to the neglect of poverty, they had imbibed, under the pressure of adversity, the most libertine opinions both in regard to religion and morals; and in greedily enjoying their good fortune, after the restoration, in retaliating the selfishness, and contrasting the language and the manners of hypocrisy, they shamefully violated the laws of decency and decorum. Elated at the return of their sovereign, the whole royal party dissolved in thoughtless jollity; and even many of the republicans, but especially the younger sort, and the women, were glad to be released from the gloomy austerity of the commonwealth. A general relaxation of manners took place. Pleasure became the universal object, and love, the prevailing taste. But that love was rather an appetite than a passion; and though the ladies sacrificed freely to it, they were never able to inspire their paramours either with sentiment or delicacy.

## CHAP. IX.

### INCIDENTS AND CURIOUS PARTICULARS.

**I**N 1611, baronets were first created in England by James I.

In 1626, the barometer was invented by Torricelli, an illustrious mathematician and philosopher of Italy. About the same time Drebellius, a celebrated Dutch philosopher, invented the thermometer and microscope.

In 1642, Charles I. impeached five members, who had opposed his arbitrary measures, which began the civil war in England.

In 1662, pendulum clocks were invented by John Fromentel, a Dutchman. During the same year, fire-engines were invented.

In 1668, St. James's park was planted; and made a thorough-fare for public use by Charles II.

There was a private affair, in the reign of this monarch, which disgusted the house of commons, and required some pains to accommodate it. The usual method of those who opposed the court in the money bills, was, if they failed in the main vote, as to the extent of the supply, to levy the money upon such funds as they expected would be unacceptable, or would prove deficient. It was proposed to lay an imposition upon playhouses. The courtiers objected, that the players were the king's servants, and a part of his pleasure. Sir John Coventry, a gentleman of the country party, asked, "whether the king's pleasure lay among the male or female players?" This stroke of satire was aimed at Charles, who, besides his mistresses of higher quality, entertained at that time two actresses, Davis, and Nell Gwin. The king received not the raillery with the good humour, which might have been expected. It was said, that this being the first time, that respect to majesty had been publicly violated, it was necessary, by some severe chastisement, to make Coventry an example to all who might incline to tread in his footsteps. Some officers of the guards were to way-lay him, and to set a mark upon him. He defended himself with bravery, and after wounding several of the assailants, was disarmed with some difficulty. They cut his nose to the bone, in order, as they said, to teach him what respect he owed to the king. The commons were inflamed by this indignity offered to one of their members, on account of words spoken in the house. They passed a law, which made it capital to maim any person; and they enacted, that those criminals, who had assaulted Coventry, should be incapable

incapable of receiving a pardon from the crown.

There was another private affair transacted about this time, by which the king was as much exposed to the imputation of a capricious lenity, as he was here blamed for unnecessary severity. Blood, a disbanded officer of the protector's had been engaged in the conspiracy for raising an insurrection in Ireland, for which he was attainted, and some of his accomplices capitally punished. The daring villain meditated revenge upon the duke of Ormond, the lord lieutenant. Having by artifice drawn off the duke's footman, he attacked his coach in the night time, as it drove along St. James's street in London, and made himself master of his person. He might here have finished the crime, had he not meditated refinements in his vengeance: he was resolved to hang the duke at Tyburn; and for that purpose bound him, and mounted him on horseback behind one of his companions. They were advanced a good way into the fields, when the duke, making efforts for his liberty, threw himself to the ground, and brought down with him the assassin to whom he was fastened. They were struggling together in the mire, when Ormond's servants, whom the alarm had reached, came and saved him. Blood was soon after taken in the attempt to steal the crown. The court had use for so complete a villain, and sunk so low as to apply to his grace for pardon for the offence against him. The duke granted it with a generous indignation. Blood had a pension of five hundred a year, and was constantly seen in the presence-chamber; to shew, it was supposed, to the great uncomplying men of the time, what a ready instrument the ministry had to revenge any attempt that might be made against them in the cause of liberty.



## BOOK IX.

## CHAP. I.

MILITARY HISTORY FROM THE REVOLUTION, IN  
1688, TO THE PRESENT TIME.

**T**HE prince of Orange had been invited to England by a coalition of parties, united by a common sense of danger; but this tie was no sooner broken than they flew asunder, and each resumed its original bias. Their mutual jealousy, and rancour revived, and king William soon found himself at the head of a faction. As he had been bred a calvinist, and always expressed an abhorrence of spiritual persecution, the presbyterians, and other protestant dissenters, considered him as their peculiar protector, and entered into his interests with the most zealous fervour and assiduity. For the same reasons, the friends of the church became jealous of his proceedings, and employed all their influence in thwarting his measures. He therefore, resolved to mortify the church, and gratify his own friends, at the same time, by removing the obstacles affixed to nonconformity, in order that all protestant dissenters might be capable of enjoying and exercising civil employments. Though he was opposed in this design, a bill was brought in, and passed into a law, indulging the dissenters with a toleration, provided they held no private assemblies or conventicles, with the door shut. Even the papists felt the benign influence of William's moderation in spiritual matters.

James

James and his queen had been received with the most cordial hospitality by the French monarch, who undertook to re-establish them on the throne of England. Succours were accordingly prepared, and a fleet got ready for this purpose. The French king is said to have offered James an army of fifteen thousand natives of France; to which he replied, that he would succeed by his own subjects, or perish in the attempt. He contented himself with about twelve hundred British subjects, and a good number of French officers, with whom he embarked at Brest, in 14 ships of the line, besides frigates and transports, and landed at Kinsale, in Ireland, on the 12th day of March. Soon after, he made his public entry into Dublin, amidst the acclamations of the inhabitants.

Having there issued writs for summoning a parliament, and made some other regulations, James, attended by Tyrconnel, the lord lieutenant, marched with his forces, and possessed himself of Coleraine. He then laid siege to Londonderry, a town of no great importance in itself, but rendered famous by the perseverance with which it opposed the attacks of its besiegers. Though the place was ill fortified, and the garrison chiefly consisted of people unacquainted with military discipline; though they were destitute of provisions, and besieged by the king in person, at the head of a formidable army; they bravely held out till they received relief. During the siege, the garrison endured inexpressible fatigue, and were reduced to the necessity of feeding on the flesh of horses, dogs, cats, rats, and other loathsome food. In this extremity, two ships laden with provisions, sailed up the river; and having broken a boom which the enemy had laid across it, and likewise sustained a very hot fire from both sides of the river, they arrived in safety at the tower, to the inexpressible joy of the inhabitants. The army of James was so dispirited by the success of this enterprise,

prise, that they abandoned the siege in the night, having lost a great number of men before the place.

In 1690, king William landed in Ireland with a gallant army, when he fought the memorable battle of the Boyne, in which, though he had the misfortune to lose the brave duke of Schomberg, yet he gained a complete victory over the French and Irish, and obliged king James to retire to Dublin, and make all the haste he could back to France. The next year general Ginkle, marched against the Irish forces, posted in a very advantageous situation, near the castle of Aghrim, with a large bog in their front. The English met with a desperate resistance; but having passed through the morasses, with amazing intrepidity, they at last put the enemy to flight. After this entire defeat, Galway surrendered, and Limerick capitulated, by which an end was put to the Irish war, and all Ireland was reduced to the obedience of William and Mary.

The king having settled the domestic affairs of the nation, and exerted uncommon care and assiduity in equipping a formidable fleet, embarked again for Holland. While he was there, promoting the grand confederacy, the French king resolved to invade England once more, in order to restore James to the throne; when the emissaries and partizans began to bestir themselves. The exiled monarch repaired to La Hogue, and was ready to embark, with a considerable force, on board the French fleet, commanded by the count de Tourville. The ministry of England were not unacquainted with these proceedings. Admiral Ruffel was ordered to put to sea with all possible expedition; and, being reinforced by the Dutch squadron, he sailed for the coast of France with a fleet of 99 ships of the line, besides frigates and fire-ships. Next day he discovered the enemy's fleet under Tourville, which consisted of 63 ships of the line. The memorable battle of La Hogue now commenced, in  
which

which a great part of the French fleet was destroyed. This victory proved so decisive, that during the remaining part of the war, the French would not hazard another battle by sea. James returned in despair to St. Germain, where his queen had been delivered of a daughter in his absence. In Flanders, during this campaign, the French took Namur in the face of the allies; and soon after, the English were defeated at Steenkirk, by the duke of Luxembourg. But notwithstanding all his overthrows, William continued a respectable enemy to the French nation, by dint of invincible fortitude, and a genius fruitful in resources.

About this time, a dissension took place between Mary and her sister Anne, princess of Denmark, who underwent every mortification the court could inflict. The princess had lately been reconciled to her father, and now entered with great zeal into his views.

In 1694, king William gave the royal assent to the triennial bill, which enacted that a parliament should at least be held once in three years. During the time this bill was depending, Dr. John Tillotson, archbishop of Canterbury, died of a fit of the palsy, sincerely lamented by the public, and deeply regretted by the king and queen, who shed tears of sorrow at his death. The queen did not long survive her favourite prelate. About a month after his decease, she was taken ill of the small-pox, and died on the 28th day of December, in the 33rd year of her age, and the 6th of her reign. Though William was neither a fond husband, nor subject to feelings of a delicate kind, he exhibited every symptom of an unfeigned grief upon the death of the queen.

The princess of Denmark was induced, by the earl of Sunderland, to send a letter of condolence, on the death of her sister, to the king. Having now obtained a nearer prospect of the crown, she was easily persuaded to adopt an appearance of reconciliation with  
William,

**William.** She was admitted into the presence of the king, who presented her with her sister's jewels, and conferred some other favours on her, more from political views, than affection for her person.

After the death of queen Mary, the friends of James renewed their practices for effecting a restoration of that monarch. Certain individuals, whose zeal for James overshot their discretion, now formed a design to seize king William, and convey him to France, or put him to death, in case of resistance. A descent on England was likewise projected. But all their schemes proved abortive. A conspiracy, which sir George Barclay, and several others, had entered into, of assassinating the king, on his return from Richmond, being discovered, the commons entered into an association, binding themselves to assist each other in support of the king and his government.

In 1697, a negotiation for peace was opened between the contending powers, at Ryswick, when the articles were subscribed by the Dutch, English, Spanish, and French ambassadors. By this treaty, the French king, notwithstanding James had publicly remonstrated against his treating with an usurper, engaged, that he would not disturb or disquiet the king of Great Britain in the possession of his realms or government; nor assist his enemies; nor favour conspiracies against his person.

In 1701, king James expired at St. Germain's in the 68th year of his age. This unfortunate monarch, since the miscarriage of his last attempt for recovering his throne, had laid aside all thoughts of worldly grandeur, and devoted his whole attention to the concerns of his soul. Hunting was his chief diversion; but religion was his constant care. He led a harmless life, and subjected himself to uncommon penance and mortification. His pride and arbitrary temper seem to have vanished with his greatness. He died with the  
most

most fervent marks of devotion, and was interred at his own request in the church of the English benedictines at Paris, without any funeral solemnity.

Though an act passed, some months before the death of James, for settling the succession to the crown in the house of Hanover, his son was now proclaimed king of England, at St. Germain's, and treated as such by the court of Versailles. His title was likewise recognised by the king of Spain, the duke of Savoy, and the pope. William complained much of this manifest violation of the treaty of Ryswick, and immediately recalled his ambassador from Paris. On the other hand, Lewis dispersed a manifesto through all the courts of Europe, in vindication of his own conduct.

Soon after, the king called a new parliament, and his speech to them was received with universal applause. It was so much admired by the well-wishers to the revolution, that they printed it with decorations, in the English, Dutch, and French languages. It appeared as a piece of furniture in all their houses, and as the king's last legacy to his own and all protestant subjects. Both houses immediately drew up a warm and affectionate address, in which they expressed their resentment at the proceedings of the French king, in owning the pretended prince of Wales for king of England; and they assured his majesty, that they would assist him to the utmost of their power against all his enemies. Both houses seemed to vie with each other in their zeal for the present government, and the whole nation joined in the cry for a war with France. King William died in 1702, in the 52nd year of his age, and the 14th of his reign in England. His death was hastened by a fall from his horse, just as he had renewed the grand alliance against France. This prince was not made by nature for popularity. His manners were cold and forbidding. He seemed also sometimes to lose sight of those principles of liberty, for the sup-

port of which he had been raised to the throne ; and though he owed his royalty to the whigs, he often favoured the tories.

William was succeeded, as sovereign of England, by Anne, princess of Denmark, who ascended the throne to the general satisfaction of all parties. As soon as she was proclaimed, she declared her resolution to carry on the preparations for opposing the exorbitant power of France, and both houses of parliament approving of the measure, war was declared against France, on the same day, at Vienna, London, and the Hague. During her reign, the honour of the British arms was carried to an amazing height, particularly by the duke of Marlborough, who, humbled the pride of France, by a number of the most glorious victories, particularly those at Blenheim and Ramilies.

In the famous battle of Blenheim, 10,000 of the French and Bavarians were left dead on the field, and 13,000 were made prisoners. The greater part of 30 squadrons of horse and dragoons perished in the river Danube. The duke of Marlborough, during the engagement, rode through the hottest of the fire with the calmest intrepidity, giving his orders with that presence of mind and deliberation, which were so peculiar to his character. This decisive stroke, saved the house of Austria from entire ruin and totally changed the face of affairs in the empire.

The battle of Ramilies, in which 600 officers, and 6,000 soldiers, fell into the hands of the victors, was attended with the immediate conquest of all Brabant. The news of this defeat overwhelmed the city of Paris with consternation. And though Lewis XIV. affected to bear his misfortunes with composure ; the constraint had a bad effect upon his constitution. At his court no mention was made of military transactions ; all was solemn, silent, and reserved.

In 1704, sir George Rook and sir Cloudesley Shovel

Shovel took Gibraltar, after a siege of two days. On their return home, the admiral's own ship struck upon the rocks of Scilly, when every person on board perished. Four other ships shared the same fate. Sir Cloudesley, who may be ranked amongst the most eminent of the British admirals, raised himself to the chief command at sea, by his *industry, valour, skill and integrity*. Not long after, the earl of Peterborough took the city of Barcelona, and several other places in Spain, while the earl of Galway, at the head of 20,000 men, took Alcantara, a city of Portugal.

In 1706 the union of England and Scotland took place, when it was stipulated that the united kingdom of Great Britain should be represented by one, and the same parliament, that Scotland should be represented by 16 peers and 45 commoners, and that all peers of Scotland should be peers of Great Britain, and rank next after the English peers of the like orders and degrees. Great opposition was made to this act by the tory interest. On the other hand, the whigs promoted it with such zeal, that it passed in the house of commons by a majority of 114. It made its way through the house of lords with equal dispatch; and when it received the royal sanction, the queen expressed the utmost satisfaction.

In 1710, means were found to convince the queen, that the whigs were no friends to the national religion. The general cry of the deluded people was, that "*the church was in danger*," which, though groundless, had great effects. One Sacheverel, an ignorant, worthless preacher, had espoused this clamour in one of his sermons, with the slavish doctrines of passive obedience, and non-resistance. It was agreed by both parties to try their strength in this man's cause. He was impeached by the commons, and found guilty by the lords, who ventured to pass upon him only a very small censure. After this trial, the queen's affection was  
entirely



entirely alienated from the duchess of Marlborough and the whig administration. Her friends lost their places, which were supplied by tories, and even the command of the army was taken from the duke of Marlborough, and given to the duke of Ormond. Thus the honour of the nation was sacrificed to court intrigues, managed by Mrs. Masham, a relation of the duchess of Marlborough, who had supplanted her benefactress.

The office of lord high treasurer was given to Mr. Harley, afterwards earl of Oxford, whose chief coadjutor, was Henry St. John, the famous lord Bolingbroke, a man of warm imagination and elegant taste, penetrating, eloquent, and ambitious; but of loose and fluctuating principles.

In 1712, lord Bolingbroke was sent to Versailles to remove all obstructions to the treaty between England and France. He was accompanied by Mr. Prior, and was received by Lewis with the most distinguished marks of respect. The negotiation being finished in a few days, Bolingbroke returned to England.

In 1713, the ratifications of the treaty being exchanged, peace was proclaimed in London, with the usual ceremonies. In this treaty, Spain yielded up to England all right to Gibraltar, and the island of Minorca, while France resigned her pretensions to Hudson's bay, Nova-Scotia, St. Christopher's, and Newfoundland. It was likewise agreed, that the fortifications of Dunkirk should be demolished, and its port destroyed.

After the peace had received the sanction of the parliament; the ministers, no longer restrained by the tie of common danger, gave loose to their mutual animosity. Bolingbroke charged the earl of Oxford with having maintained a private correspondence with the house of Hanover. Oxford wrote a letter to the queen, in which he endeavoured to justify his own conduct,

conduct, and expose the turbulent and ambitious spirit of his rival. In all probability, the treasurer's greatest crime was, his having given umbrage to the favourite, lady Masham. Being therefore removed from his employment, Bolingbroke triumphed in the victory he had obtained. His lordship's ambition, however, was defeated, as the place of lord treasurer was filled by the duke of Shrewsbury.

The confusion at court, upon this occasion, had such an effect on the queen's spirits and constitution, which were already greatly impaired by the gout, that she was immediately seized with a lethargic disorder, of A. D. 1714. which she soon after expired, in the 50th year of her age, and the 13th of her reign. Though she was a favourite with neither party in parliament till towards the end of her reign, when the Tories affected to idolize her, yet the people dignified her with the name of *the good queen Anne*.

The queen had no sooner breathed her last, than orders were issued by the regency, for proclaiming king George, in England, Scotland, and Ireland. The earl of Dorset was then appointed to carry to Hanover the intimation of his majesty's accession, and to attend him on his journey to England. This prince, who was son of Ernest Augustus, first duke, and afterwards elector of Hanover, and the princess Sophia, grand daughter of James I. was in the 55th year of his age when he ascended the throne of Great Britain, in pursuance to the act of succession. Notwithstanding the divided state of the kingdom, the event took place without the least opposition, tumult, or sign of popular discontent.

On the 17th of September, the king, accompanied by the electoral prince, landed at Greenwich, where he was received by the duke of Northumberland, captain of the life-guards, and the lords of the regency. He walked to his house in Greenwich park; and when he retired to his bed-chamber, he sent for those of the nobility

nobility who had distinguished themselves by their zeal for his succession; but the duke of Ormond, the lord chancellor, and lord Trevor, were not of the number. And the earl of Oxford, after having, the next morning, remained a considerable time unnoticed among the croud, was only permitted to kiss his majesty's hand. On the 20th, the king passed through London, in his way to St. James's, with a numerous attendance of nobility, and great magnificence.

An instantaneous and total change was soon effected in every office of honour and advantage. The tories, against whom George had been misled into strong prepossessions, were excluded from all share of the royal favour, which was wholly engrossed by the whigs. These early marks of aversion to that party, which the king took no pains to conceal, alienated the minds of many from his person and government, who might otherwise have served him with fidelity and affection. Among the principal changes, the duke of Ormond was dismissed from the command of the army, which his majesty restored to the duke of Marlborough, whom he likewise appointed master of the ordnance. Mr. Pulteney became secretary at war; and Mr. Walpole, who had already undertaken to manage the house of commons, was gratified with the double place of paymaster to the army and to Chelsea hospital.

The number of the malecontents in England was now considerably increased by the king's attachment to the whig faction. The clamour of the church's being in danger was revived, jealousies were excited, seditious libels dispersed, and dangerous tumults raised in different parts of the kingdom.

In 1715, general Stanhope delivered to the house of commons 14 volumes, consisting of all the papers relating to the late negotiations of peace and commerce, as well as to the cessation of arms, and moved that they might be referred to a select committee. Mr.

Walpole,

Walpole, as chairman, soon after declared to the house that the report was ready, and in the mean time moved, that a warrant might be issued by the speaker for apprehending several persons, particularly Mr. Matthew Prior, and Mr. Thomas Harley, who being in their places were immediately taken into custody. Mr. Walpole then impeached lords Bolingbroke and Oxford. When the latter appeared in the house next day, he found himself avoided by his brother peers, as infectious, and retired with signs of confusion. The duke of Ormond was likewise impeached of high treason, who, perceiving that he could not expect the benefit of an impartial trial, consulted his own safety, by withdrawing himself from the kingdom. When the earl of Oxford was sent to the tower, he was attended by a prodigious concourse of people, who exclaimed against his persecutors. The cry upon this occasion was, "High-church, Ormond and Oxford for ever." The duke of Ormond and lord Bolingbroke, who had retired to the continent, having omitted to surrender themselves within the time limited, the house of lords ordered the earl-marshal to raze out of the list of peers their names and armorial bearings. Inventories were taken of their personal estates; and the duke's achievement, as knight of the garter, was taken down from St. George's chapel at Windsor.

By this time, a rebellion was actually begun in Scotland. The dissensions, occasioned in that country by the union, had never been wholly appeased; and as they had no hopes of dissolving that treaty, they determined to attempt something of consequence in favour of the pretender. They maintained a correspondence with the malecontents in England, who finding themselves totally excluded from any share in the government and legislature, and exposed to the insolence and fury of a faction which they despised, began to wish in earnest for a revolution. The chevalier de St.  
George

George took advantage of this favourable disposition, and by the assistance of the French king, who favoured him in secret, was enabled to prepare a small armament in the port of Havre. The duke of Ormond and lord Bolingbroke, having retired to France, engaged in his service, and corresponded with the Tories of England.

All these intrigues and machinations were discovered, and communicated to the court of London, by the earl of Stair, who then resided as English ambassador at Paris. This nobleman detected the chevalier's scheme while it was yet in embryo, and he gave such early notice of it, as enabled the king to take effectual measures for defeating the design. But the most fatal blow to the pretender's interest in France, was the death of Lewis XIV. that ostentatious tyrant, who, for above half a century, sacrificed the repose of Christendom to his insatiate vanity and ambition. Upon the decease of Lewis, the duke of Orleans entered into engagements with the king of Great Britain; and instead of assisting the pretender, amused his agents with mysterious and equivocal expressions, calculated to frustrate the design of the expedition.

The partizans of the chevalier had proceeded too far to retreat with safety, and, therefore, resolved to try their fortune in the field. The earl of Mar assembled 300 of his own vassals, proclaimed the pretender at Castletown, and set up his standard at Brae-Mar, on the 6th of September. Soon after, two vessels arrived at Arbroath, from Havre, with arms, ammunition, and a great number of officers, who assured the earl of Mar, that the chevalier would soon be with them in person. The earl now assumed the title of lieutenant-general of the pretender's forces, and in a short time found himself at the head of 10,000 men, well armed. Among the earl's adherents, were the marquisses of Huntly and Tullibardine, the earls of Marischal and Southesk,

Southesk, and several other chiefs of the jacobite clans.

In England, the earl of Derwentwater and Mr. Forster took the field with a body of horse. Being joined by some gentlemen from the borders of Scotland, they proclaimed the pretender in Warkworth, Morpeth, and Alnwick. They then attempted to seize Newcastle, but being unsuccessful, they retired towards Scotland. There they were reinforced by some of the Scottish insurgents, and returning again into England, were overpowered at Preston, in Lancashire, by the king's forces, under the generals Wills and Carpenter, who obliged them to lay down their arms.

The very same day on which the rebels were subdued at Preston, the duke of Argyle defeated the rebel army, under the earl of Mar, consisting of about 8 or 9,000 men, at Sheriff-muir, about four miles from Aberdeen, when the earl of Mar retreated to Perth, after an obstinate fight, in which both sides claimed the victory; though the earl, being frustrated in his design of crossing the Forth, shewed that the king's forces had the advantage.

The chevalier had been amused with the hope of seeing the whole kingdom of England rise up as one man in his behalf. He was, however, convinced of the vanity of his expectations in that quarter, by a fruitless voyage, which the duke of Ormond had made to the western coast. Nothing, therefore, remained for him, but to hazard his person among his friends in Scotland. He accordingly arrived in that country, and after being solemnly proclaimed, went to Scone, where he exercised some acts of royalty, and seemed determined to stay until the ceremony of his coronation should be performed. The chiefs of his party, hearing that the king's army, commanded by the duke of Argyle, had been reinforced by 6,000 Dutch troops, and were marching towards them, being destitute of money, arms, ammunition, and provision, resolved to  
abandon

was heard but ravings of grief, disappointment, and despair.

The house of commons, at length, took the affair into consideration; and a committee of secrecy was chosen by ballot, to examine the books, papers, and proceedings of the company. In a short time the committee made a report, that they had discovered a train of the deepest villainy and fraud that hell ever contrived to ruin a nation. Some of the directors and principal officers of the company were, in consequence thereof, taken into custody. Others were expelled the house of commons. The estates of the greatest delinquents were confiscated towards making good the damages sustained by the public; and such prudent regulations were made by the house of commons, as the case would admit of. A similar fraud had been practised in France, by a Mississippi company under the direction of Mr. John Law, a Scotchman; but this did not serve as a warning to the English.

In 1722, the king is said to have received from the duke of Orleans certain information of a fresh conspiracy against his person and government, in favour of the pretender. A camp was immediately formed in Hyde-park, and several suspected persons were apprehended. Doctor Atterbury, bishop of Rochester, was seized, and his papers having been examined before a committee of the council, he was committed to the tower for high treason. The duke of Norfolk, the earl of Orrery, the lords North and Grey, and some of inferior rank, were confined to the same place. Mr. Layer, a young gentleman of the temple, was tried at the king's-bench, for enlisting men into the pretender's service; of which being found guilty, he was hanged at Tyburn, and his head fixed on Temple-bar. He was the only person, who suffered death on this occasion. The bishop of Rochester was deprived of his office and benefice, and banished the kingdom; and

and the king admitted the imprisoned lords and gentlemen to bail. At the same time he granted a pardon to lord Bolingbroke, and soon after an act passed restoring that nobleman to his family estate.

The session of parliament, in 1724, was distinguished by the trial of the earl of Macclesfield, lord-chancellor of England. This nobleman, having connived at certain venal practices, touching the sale of places, and the money of suitors deposited with the masters of chancery, so as to incur the general reproach of the nation, was impeached by the commons, at the bar of the upper house. The trial lasted 20 days. The earl was convicted of fraudulent practices, and condemned in a fine of 30,000*l.* with imprisonment till that sum should be paid. He was immediately committed to the tower, where he continued about six weeks; but upon paying the money, he was discharged, and sir Peter King succeeded him in the office of chancellor.

In 1726, the king, having received advice of some inimical designs of the Spaniards, sent a squadron, under the command of admiral Hosier, to the Spanish West-Indies. This brave officer, upon his arrival in those seas, finding himself restricted by his orders from obeying the dictates of his courage, and seeing his best officers and men daily swept off by the unhealthy climate, and his ships exposed to inevitable destruction from the worms, is said to have died of a broken heart; while the people of England loudly clamoured against the unfortunate expedition.

In consequence of these hostilities in the West-Indies, the emperor and Spain prepared to make retaliation on the English; and the king of A. D. 1727. Spain laid siege to Gibraltar, with an army of twenty thousand men. But the powers at variance, although they were extremely irritated against each other, being equally averse to war, a treaty was opened at Aix-la-Chapelle, for adjusting all differences,



satisfaction. The king promised to comply with the request of the commons; and the following year he gave them to understand, that the peace of Europe was established by the treaty of Seville, lately concluded. He assured them, that all former conventions made with Spain, in favour of the British trade and navigation were renewed and confirmed by it, that the free uninterrupted exercise of their commerce was restored, and that the court of Spain had agreed to an ample restitution and reparation for the unlawful seizures and depredations complained of.

The year 1730 was not distinguished by any action of great moment in Great Britain. Seven chiefs of the Cherokee nations of Indians, in America, were brought to England. Being introduced to the king, they laid their crown and regalia at his feet, and, by an authentic deed, acknowledged themselves subjects to his dominion. They were astonished at the riches and magnificence of the British court.

The history of Britain, at this period, chiefly consists of an annual revolution of debates in parliament, in which the same arguments perpetually recur on the same subjects. Among these, sir Robert Walpole's famous excise bill merits attention. It met with uncommon opposition both within and without doors. After long and violent debates had been maintained by all the able speakers on both sides, it was carried in the house of commons by a majority of 61 voices. The opposition which the minister encountered without doors, however, prevented his project from being carried into execution. The whole nation was alarmed, and clamoured loudly against it. The populace crowded round Westminster-hall, blocking up all the avenues to the house of commons. They even insulted the persons of those members, who had voted for the ministry on this occasion, and sir Robert Walpole began to be in fear of his life. He therefore thought  
proper

proper to drop the design, by moving that the second reading of the bill should be put off. The miscarriage of the bill was celebrated with public rejoicings in London and Westminster; and the minister was burnt in effigy by the populace.

The subject which of all others employed at this time, the eloquence and abilities of the members on both sides, in the house of commons, was a motion for repealing the septennial act, and for the more frequent meeting and calling of parliaments. Many judicious arguments were brought for and against it. The ministry alledged that the increase of papists and jacobites rendered it dangerous to weaken the hands of government. They challenged the opposition to produce one instance, in which the least encroachment had been made on the liberties of the people; and they defied the most ingenious malice to prove, that his present majesty had ever endeavoured to extend any branch of the prerogative, beyond its legal bounds. In opposition to this, many warm, nervous, and pathetic remonstrances were urged in favour of the motion. It was suppressed by dint of numbers.

In 1736, the marriage of Frederic, prince of Wales, with the princess of Saxe-Gotha, was celebrated. Upon this occasion Mr. Pulteney moved for an address of congratulation to his majesty; and was supported by Mr. George Littleton, and Mr. William Pitt, who seized this opportunity of pronouncing elegant panegyrics on the prince of Wales and his amiable consort. These two young members soon distinguished themselves in the house by their eloquence and superior talents.

The beginning of the year 1737 was distinguished by a rupture in the royal family, occasioned by the prince of Wales carrying away the princess of Wales, then near her time, from Hampton-court, where their majesties resided, to St. James's, where she was that  
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night

night delivered of Augusta, now princess of Brunswick. On the 20th of November died queen Caroline, in the 55th year of her age. The dissention still subsisted between the prince of Wales and his father, who ordered the lord chamberlain to signify publicly; that no person who visited the prince, should be admitted to the court at St. James's.

In 1738, the princess of Wales was delivered of a son, who was baptized by the name of George, and is now king of Great Britain. His birth was celebrated with uncommon rejoicings, and numerous addresses were presented to the king upon the occasion. But the prince of Wales still laboured under the displeasure of his majesty, and lived like a private gentleman, cultivating the virtues of social life.

When the session of parliament opened, the king, in his speech, informed his people, that a convention had been concluded and ratified between him and the king of Spain; who had obliged himself to make reparation to the British subjects for their losses, by certain stipulated payments. This famous convention, which was concluded at the Pardo, on the 14th of January, caused great debates in both houses. In the house of commons, the two contending parties summoned their whole force for the approaching dispute. On the day appointed for considering the convention, 400 members had taken their seats by 8 in the morning. All the officers and adherents of the prince of Wales joined the opposition; and he himself sat in the gallery to hear the debate. Among many others who spoke to the question, Mr. Pitt, with an energy of argument and diction, peculiar to himself, declaimed against the convention, as insecure, unsatisfactory, and dishonourable. Sir William Wyndham and Mr. Pulteney poured all the thunder of their eloquence against the insolence of Spain, and the concessions of the British ministry. On the other side, sir Robert Walpole exerted

erted all his fortitude and dexterity, in defence of himself and his measures; and an address of thanks to his majesty was carried by a small majority. To such a degree of mutual animosity were both parties inflamed, that the most eminent members of the minority actually retired from parliament, and were by the nation in general, revered as martyrs to the liberty of the people. In the house of lords, the debate was maintained with equal warmth. Lord Bathurst argued against the articles with his usual spirit, integrity, and good sense. The earl of Chesterfield attacked them with all the weight of argument, and all the poignancy of satire. And the duke of Argyle, no longer a partizan of the ministry, inveighed against them with all the fire, impetuosity, and enthusiasm of declamation. They were defended by the duke of Newcastle, the earl of Cholmondeley, lord Harvey, the lord chancellor, and in particular the earl of Ilay, a nobleman of extensive capacity and uncommon erudition. The dispute was learned, long, and obstinate; but ended in favour of the address.

In 1739, war being declared against Spain, admiral Vernon was sent with a squadron of ships to annoy their commerce and settlements in America, when he took the town of Porto-Bello, with only 6 ships. The next year, advice was received from admiral Vernon, that he had bombarded Carthagena, and taken Fort Chagre.

The year 1741 was remarkable for an unsuccessful expedition of general Wentworth and admiral Vernon against Carthagena, owing to a disagreement which arose between them. The miscarriage of this expedition, which had cost the nation an immense sum, was no sooner known in England, than the kingdom was filled with murmur and discontent, and the people were depressed in proportion to that sanguine hope by which they had been elevated. The general discontent

tent of the people had a manifest influence upon the election of members for the new parliament. The minister now tottered on the brink of ruin. He knew that the majority of a single vote would at any time commit him prisoner to the tower, should ever the motion be made ; and he saw that his safety could be effected by no other expedient than that of dividing the opposition. This he tried in several ways, and finding it fail, he declared he would never more sit in the house of commons. The king adjourned the parliament for a few days, and in the interim, Sir Robert Walpole was created earl of Orford, and resigned all his employments.

The newly created earl, however, soon found means to transfer the popular odium from himself, to those who had professed themselves his keenest adversaries. A coalition took place. Some were gratified with titles and offices ; and all were assured, that in the management of affairs, a new system would be adopted, according to the plan they themselves should propose.

On the 17th of February, the prince of Wales, attended by a numerous retinue of his adherents, waited on his majesty, who received him graciously, and ordered his guards to be restored. This reconciliation, and the change in the ministry, were celebrated with public rejoicings all over the kingdom.

In 1745, the son of the old pretender resolved to make an effort at gaining the British crown. Being furnished with some money, and still larger promises, from France, he embarked for Scotland on board a small frigate, accompanied by the marquis of Tullibardine, and a few other desperate adventurers. For the conquest of the whole British empire, he brought with him seven officers, and arms for 2000 men. He landed on the coast of Lochabar, and was in a little time joined by some Highland chiefs, and their vassals. He soon saw himself at the head of 1500 men, and  
invited

invited others to join him by manifestoes, which were dispersed throughout all the highlands. The ministry was no sooner confirmed of the truth of his arrival, than sir John Cope was ordered to oppose his progress. In the mean time, the young adventurer marched to Perth, where his father, the chevalier de St. George, was proclaimed king of Great Britain. The rebel army advanced towards Edinburgh, which they entered without opposition. Here, too, the pageantry of proclamation was performed. But, though he was master of the capital, yet the citadel, which goes by the name of the castle, with a good garrison, under the command of general Gueft, braved all his attempts. Sir John Cope, who was now reinforced by two regiments of dragoons, resolved to march towards Edinburgh, and give him battle. The young adventurer attacked him near Preston-Pans, and in a few minutes, totally routed him and his troops. In this victory the king lost 1500 men, and the rebels not above 80.

In the mean time, the pretender went forward with vigour; and, having advanced to Penrith, continued his irruption till he came to Manchester, where he established his head quarters, and afterwards continued his rout to Derby. He determined, however, once more to return to Scotland, where after many attacks and skirmishes, the duke of Cumberland put himself at the head of the troops at Edinburgh, which consisted of about 14,000 men. He resolved to come to a battle as soon as possible, and marched northward, while the young adventurer retired at his approach. The duke advanced to Aberdeen, where he was joined by the duke of Gordon, and some other lords. The

A. D. 1746. Highlanders were drawn up in order of battle on the plain of Culloden, to the number of 8,000 men. The duke marched thither, and the battle began on the 16th of April, about one o'clock in the afternoon. In less than thirty minutes,

minutes, the rebels were totally routed and the field covered with their dead bodies. The duke immediately after the battle ordered 36 deserters to be executed. The rebellion being quelled, the legislature resolved to make examples of those who had been concerned in disturbing the peace of the country. Many persons who had borne arms in the rebel army were executed on Kensington common, near London, at Carlisle, at Penrith, and at York. The earls of Kilmarnock and Cromartie, and lord Balmerino, were tried by their peers in Westminster-hall, and found guilty. Cromartie's life was spared, but the other two were beheaded on Tower-hill. Mr. Ratcliff, the titular earl of Derwentwater, soon after suffered the same fate; as did lord Lovat, who was turned of fourscore. A few of the rebels obtained pardons, and a considerable number were transported to the plantations.

Meanwhile the flame of war continued to rage on the continent, and many were the defeats, the victories, and the negotiations which took place, till they were put a stop to by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748. The peace was celebrated by fire-works, illuminations, and rejoicings, in which the English, French, and Dutch, seemed to display a spirit of emulation, in point of taste and magnificence.

In 1751, the kingdom was alarmed with an event, which overwhelmed the people with grief and consternation. His royal highness Frederic prince of Wales, in consequence of a cold caught in his garden at Kew, was seized with a pleuritic disorder; and after a short illness, expired on the 20th day of March, to the unspeakable affliction of his royal consort, and the unfeigned sorrow of all who wished well to their country.

In 1753, while the powers on the continent of Europe were employed in strengthening their respective interest, and concerting measures for preventing any interruption of the general tranquillity, matters were fast

fast ripening to a fresh rupture between the subjects of Great Britain and France, in different parts of America.

In 1754, the ambition and intrigues of the French court, by which the British interest was invaded and disturbed on the continent of America, had also extended itself to the East Indies, where they endeavoured to embroil the English company with divers of the nabobs or princes.

In 1755, preparations for a vigorous naval war were carried on in England, with unparalleled spirit and success. Admiral Boscawen, with eleven ships of the line and a frigate, sailed in April for the banks of Newfoundland; and in a few days after his arrival there, a French fleet from Brest came to the same station, under the command of monsieur de la Mothe. The thick fogs which prevail on these coasts kept the two armaments from seeing each other; however, two of the French ships, of 64 guns, which had been separated from the rest, were taken after a smart engagement, by two English 60 gun ships. As soon as the news of this action arrived at Paris, the French ambassador was recalled from London.

On the 7th of May, 1756, his Britannic majesty declared war against France, and sent admiral Byng, with a strong fleet, to the relief of Minorca; but he neglecting to fulfil his instructions, the place was lost, and he was tried and shot at Portsmouth. On the day fixed for his execution, about noon, he walked out of the great cabin to the quarter deck, where two files of marines were ready to execute the sentence. He advanced with a firm step, and a composed countenance, kneeled on a cushion, tied one handkerchief over his eyes, and dropped the other as a signal for his executioners, who fired a volley so decisive, that five balls passed through his body, and he dropped down dead in an instant. The time in which this tragedy was acted, did not exceed three minutes. Though there appears  
to



to have been some severity exercised upon this occasion, the example proved of singular service to the nation during the ensuing war.

In order to conciliate the good will of those whom their conduct had disoblged, and remove, from their own shoulders, part of what future censure might ensue, the present ministers admitted into a share of the administration Mr. Pitt and Mr. Legge, two gentlemen esteemed the most illustrious patriots, alike distinguished and admired for their spirit and integrity. However much the people were charmed with those promotions, the heterogeneous union was not of long continuance. As the new members of ad-

A. D. 1757. ministration were neither to be persuaded, nor intimidated, into any measures, which they thought repugnant to the true interest of their country, they were represented to their royal master as obstinate, imperious, and ignorant. These suggestions, artfully inculcated, produced the desired effect. On the 9th of April, Mr. Pitt, by his majesty's command, resigned the seals of secretary of state, as did Mr. Legge the office of chancellor of the exchequer. But the whole nation, rising up as one man, in vindication of persons idolized, and the king being solicited, in a great number of addresses, to restore them to their employments; his majesty, ever ready to meet half way the wishes of his faithful people, reinstated them in their places, in the month of June following, and thereby gave universal satisfaction. Mr. Fox, who had before principally conducted the political machine, was gratified with the office of receiver and pay-master-general of the land forces. Many other alterations were likewise made in the ministerial arrangement.

During these transactions, Mr. Clive, one of the clerks of the East India company, distinguished himself in the East Indies. After obtaining the rank of colonel, he had such amazing success, that all the towns

towns and factories of the French on the coast of *Coromandel*, except *Pondicherry*, were, in a few years, taken by the English.

In 1758, the duke of *Marlborough* landed near *St. Maloes* in *France*, burnt many ships, with a great quantity of naval stores. *Lieutenant-general Bligh* and captain *Howe* took *Cherbourg*, and demolished the fortifications. Soon after, captain *Marsh* took *Senegal*, and commodore *Keppel* the island of *Goree*, on the coast of *Africa*. On the 26th of *July*, *Capé Breton* was re-taken by general *Amherst* and admiral *Boscawen*, while fort *Frontenac* surrendered to lieutenant-general *Bradstreet*, and fort *Du Quesne* to general *Forbes*.

On the 1st of *May*, the island of *Gaudaloupe* surrendered to the English. In the same month, *Mari-A. D. 1759.* *galante*, *Santos*, and *Deseda*, became subject to Great Britain. On the 1st of *August* was fought the glorious battle of *Minden*, in which about 7,000 English defeated 80,000 of the French regular troops.

The command of the expedition against *Quebec*, the capital of the French *Canada*, was given to general *Wolfe*, a young officer of a true military genius. *Wolfe's* courage and perseverance surmounted incredible difficulties; he gained the heights of *Abraham*, near *Quebec*, where he fought and defeated the French army, but was himself killed. As he stood conspicuous in the front of the line, he had been aimed at by the enemy's marksmen, and received a shot in the wrist, which, however, did not oblige him to quit the field. Having wrapped a handkerchief round his hand, he continued to give orders without the least emotion, and advanced at the head of the grenadiers, when another ball unfortunately pierced the breast of this young hero, who fell in the arms of victory. *Wolfe* was a national loss, universally lamented.

The affairs of the French being now desperate, and

their credit ruined, they resolved upon an attempt to retrieve all by an invasion of Great Britain; but, on the 18th of August, admiral Boscawen attacked the Toulon squadron, commanded by M. de la Clue, near the Streights of Gibraltar, took three ships, and burnt two.

On the 20th of November, sir Edward Hawke defeated the Brest fleet, commanded by admiral Conflans, off the island of Dumet, in the bay of Biscay. After this engagement, the French gave over all thoughts of their intended invasion of Great Britain. In the beginning of next year, however, captain Thurot, a French marine adventurer, who with three sloops of war had alarmed the coasts of Scotland, and actually made a descent at Carrickfergus, in Ireland, was, on his return from thence, met, defeated, and killed, by captain Elliot, the commodore of three ships inferior in force to the Frenchman's squadron.

While the arms of Great Britain thus prospered in every quarter of the world, the king, without any previous complaint, was suddenly seized with the agonies of death, at his palace of Kensington. The disorder, which occasioned his decease, appeared to be a rupture of the right ventricle of the heart, whereby a great quantity of blood was discharged through the aperture, into the surrounding pericardium. He died in the 77th year of his age, after a reign of 34 years, distinguished by a variety of important events. The circumstances, which chiefly marked his public character, were a predilection for his native country, and a close attention to the political interests of the Germanic body.

## CHAP. I. continued.

**G**EORGE II. was succeeded by his grandson, our present sovereign George III. who upon the death of his father, Frederic prince of Wales, became heir apparent to the throne. His majesty's first care after his accession, was to assemble the parliament, to whom he made a speech, in which he laid great stress upon his *being born and educated a Briton*. From this endearing expression, and also from the general tenor of the speech, the people conceived the fondest hopes of a happy and indulgent reign.

Mr. Pitt, who had conducted the war with a spirit and success, never exceeded, if equalled, by any former minister, and who, by his penetration and sagacity, had dived into the designs and intrigues of the enemy, discovered a private treaty that had been lately entered into between France and Spain, termed the family compact. He therefore proposed in council, that a fleet should be sent to intercept the Spanish flota, or to block up Cadiz. But this being over-ruled, Mr. Pitt and lord Temple, who were the only members to support it against the rest of the council, thought proper to resign; which produced a change in the ministry. The day after Mr. Pitt resigned the seals, a pension of 3,000*l.* a year was settled on him by his majesty, for three lives; and at the same time, a title was conferred on his lady, and her issue.

The close of the year 1761 left the affairs of all Europe, both military and political, in a very interesting situation. The endeavours, which had been made to bring about a peace, served only to increase the animosity of the contending nations. Great Britain, in particular, was never in a more doubtful and dangerous situation; for at this time she was engaged in a war, not only with all the great continental powers,

ers, but with the most considerable part of the maritime strength of Europe. Success, however, continued to attend her arms both by sea and land. In the month of February, the island of Martinique was taken by rear-admiral Rodney, and general Monckton. The surrender of Martinique was followed by that of the islands of Granada, St. Lucia, and St. Vincent.

An expedition was likewise undertaken against Havannah, the capital of the isle of Cuba. The command of the navy was given to admiral Pococke, and of the land forces, to the earl of Albemarle. This important place surrendered to the British dominion on the 14th of August, after a siege of more than two months. So lucrative a conquest had never before been made. In ready money and valuable merchandize, the plunder did not much fall short of three millions sterling. In the East Indies, Manilla, the capital of the Philippine islands, was reduced by admiral Cornish and general Draper. The capture of a Spanish register ship, named the *Hermione*, by two British frigates, added another million sterling to these valuable acquisitions. The treasure passed in triumph through Westminster, to the Bank, the very hour that the prince of Wales was born.

Lord Bute, who, upon the king's accession to the throne, had been appointed groom of the stole, and afterwards, in order to take a more open share in the conduct of affairs, had accepted the seals as secretary of state, now succeeded the duke of Newcastle as first lord of the treasury. This nobleman being considered as the head of the whig interest, his resignation was followed by that of several others, of great rank and influence.

In 1763, the preliminaries of peace, which had been signed by the British and French ministers at Fontainebleu, were finally ratified on the 10th day of February.

February. By this treaty, Great Britain received Florida in exchange for the Havannah. Canada, Cape-Breton, Tobago, Dominica, St. Vincent, Grenada, and Senegal, were retained; but all her other conquests were restored.

The political dissensions which first arose on the resignation of Mr. Pitt, and became more violent when the duke of Newcastle retired, now rather increased than abated. The anti-ministerialists insisted that the peace was inadequate to our successes; and that the interests of the nation had been sacrificed, in order to render the favourite minister secure and permanent in his office. On the other hand, the earl of Bute, and his friends, as strenuously maintained, that all the objects for which the war had commenced were obtained and confirmed by the peace; and that the nation was so exhausted, both with respect to men and money, that supplies for carrying on the war another year could not be raised without involving the country in the deepest distress. The debates in both houses were uncommonly warm upon the subject; and the opposition were distinguished by the title of the glorious minority. In addition to the popular clamour already excited against lord Bute, on the score of favouritism, and on account of the peace, a tax laid on cyder, subject to the laws of excise, occasioned such violent attacks upon him, that he hastily resigned; and Mr. George Gréville was appointed first lord of the treasury in his room.

Many furious papers and pamphlets were at this time published by the partizans of both sides. But one of the most violent of the whole was a periodical paper entitled *The North Briton*, conducted, it is said, and principally composed, by Mr. Wilkes, member for the borough of Aylesbury. The speech of his majesty to the parliament having been attacked with an indecent freedom in number 45 of this paper, the earls  
of

of Halifax and Egremont, secretaries of state, issued a general warrant for apprehending the author, printer, and publisher, of the said libel. Mr. Wilkes was accordingly seized and sent prisoner to the tower. His papers also were seized at the same time. But upon his being brought up to the court of common pleas, he was released, as the court were of opinion that the privilege of parliament extended to libels. After fighting a duel with Mr. Martin, late secretary to the treasury, whose character he had attacked in his writings, Mr. Wilkes thought proper to retire to France. During his absence, he was expelled the house of commons, for another libel, which they condemned as blasphemous; and not appearing to the indictments preferred against him, he was outlawed. In 1768, he returned home, when the sentence of outlawry was reversed by lord Mansfield in the court of king's-bench, and he submitted to the sentence of a fine and imprisonment pronounced against him by the same court for the blasphemous libel. Some time after, however, he recovered 4,000*l.* damages for his imprisonment in the tower upon an illegal warrant.

The most interesting event to this country, during the year 1765, was the passing the American stamp act, which first kindled the sparks of that conflagration, which afterwards enveloped a great part of Europe, as well as North America, in its flames.

The spirit of party was now become so general and violent, that it was productive of frequent changes, not only in public men, but in public measures and councils. In the month of July, Mr. Greville, and his friends being dismissed, a new administration was formed, called the *Rockingham administration*, the marquis being appointed first lord of the treasury. The chief business of this ministry was to undo all that their predecessors had done; particularly by repealing the cyder and stamp acts.

In

In 1766, another entire change of administration took place. The duke of Grafton succeeded the marquis of Rockingham, as first lord of the treasury; several other alterations were made in the inferior departments of state; and the custody of the privy-seal was bestowed on Mr. Pitt, now created earl of Chatham, upon whose recommendation, it is said, this ministry was formed. The patriotic opinion which had been entertained of the late ministry, was much increased by the disinterestedness they had shewn upon quitting their offices; as they retired without securing to themselves or friends a place, pension, or reversion. On the other hand, the present procedure of the earl of Chatham tended to lessen that popularity of which he had before enjoyed so boundless a share.

About this time peace was established in the East Indies by lord Clive, who returned the following year. A new enemy, however, soon started up. Hyder Ally, who, from a common soldier had become a prince of a large tract of territory on the Malabar coast, in confederacy with the viceroy of Decan, declared war against the English. The council of Madras sent a body of troops under colonel Smith, who obtained a complete victory over them, when the viceroy immediately made peace with the English. Hyder Ally took refuge among the mountains, from whence he made frequent incursions. But peace was at last proposed to him, and accepted.

The flame which had been for some time kindling between Great Britain and her American colonies, now began to blaze out. Some duties were laid, during the last session of parliament, on paper, glass, and a few other articles, to be paid upon their importation into America from England. This was considered as a fresh invasion of their chartered rights. The general assembly came to a resolution to discontinue the use of all British manufactures.



factures, till these duties were repealed. In this respect they were soon gratified. But the duty on tea, which had been laid on in order to favour the East India company, when they made their new agreement with government, still continued, and was the means of causing greater disturbances than ever in America. The breach between that country and Great Britain grew wider every day. At Boston, the military having fired upon a mob, for a riot at the custom-house, several were killed; and captain Preston, being tried for the murder, was acquitted by the jury, composed of housekeepers in the town.

A panic seems to have seized the ministry on this occasion, and a great number of resignations took place.

To the astonishment of the whole nation, among these was that of the duke of Grafton, who resigned his office of first lord of the treasury, and was succeeded by lord North, already chancellor of the exchequer.

In 1772, a mysterious and bloody scene was exhibited in Denmark, which still continues in its original darkness and obscurity. The following are some of the facts attending it. The whole sovereign power being engrossed by the king's mother-in-law, the queen dowager, and his half-brother, prince Frederick, the counts Struensee and Brandt, his majesty's two principle favourites, were tried for high treason, condemned, and beheaded. The queen-consort, Matilda, sister to his Britannic majesty, very narrowly escaped with her life. She was confined for some time, and afterwards obliged to leave the kingdom; upon which she retired to the castle of Zell, in the electorate of Hanover, where she kept a melancholy court, and died in May, 1775, after a few days illness, in the 23rd year of her age.

Disorders and discontents continued to prevail, and every day to increase, in all the American colonies.

The

**A. D. 1774.** The Americans who formed the blockade of Boston, having thought proper to erect works on an eminence called Bunker's-hill, which commanded the town and harbour, general Gage sent a body of troops, consisting of 2,000 men, under the command of major-general Howe, and brigadier-general Pigot to dislodge them. After a most obstinate and bloody conflict, in which the loss of the king's troops amounted to upwards of 1,000 men, the Americans were driven from their post, and the works destroyed. During the action, Charles-town, a place adjacent, and which is separated from Boston by the river Charles, was set on fire, and burnt to the ground. Whether this was effected by carcases thrown from the ships, or by the troops, is uncertain. As soon as the news of the battle of Bunker's-hill reached the congress, they appointed George Washington, esq. a gentleman of affluent fortune in Virginia, and who had acquired considerable military experience in the command of different bodies of the provincials, during the last war, to be general and commander in chief of all the American forces.

In 1776, Boston was bombarded and evacuated, when general Washington took possession of it, and general Howe removed his troops to Halifax. In July, a fruitless attack was made upon Charles-town, in which the English suffered considerably. About this time, general Howe landed, drove the Americans out of Long island, who abandoned New York to the British forces. Offers of reconciliation were now made by Howe, and rejected. Sir Peter Parker and general Clinton took Rhode Island, and the English also made some incursions into the Jerseys. General Washington soon after surprised and took prisoners above 900 of the Hessian troops, in our service, with several stands of arms.

In 1777, there were two actions between the generals

als Howe and Washington, and Philadelphia surrendered to the king's troops. A plan was now formed for invading the revolted colonies by way of Canada, and general Burgoyne undertook the expedition; but after many difficulties, and some desperate actions, this army was obliged to surrender themselves prisoners of war to Gates and Arnold. Our expedition up the north river was more successful, under Clinton and Vaughan; the former of whom, soon after, succeeded general Howe as commander in chief, and, after evacuating Philadelphia, retreated with his army to New York.

In 1778, the French entered into an alliance with the Thirteen United Colonies; and as affairs wore so gloomy an aspect, the earl of Carlisle, Mr. Eden, and governor Johnson, were sent as commissioners to treat of peace; but the hour was past, and the terms were rejected with disdain. The war was carried on with mutual animosity, and the whole of Georgia was reduced by the British forces. Hostilities next commenced with France; and the English admiral Keppel engaged the French fleet under count D'Orvilliers. Not a ship was taken on either side; and, upon some censure being passed on vice-admiral sir Hugh Palliser's conduct, he applied to Keppel for redress, which was denied. He then exhibited articles of accusation against Keppel, who was tried, and honourably acquitted; and there the farce ended.

In 1780, sir George Rodney, with a large fleet, captured five Spanish ships of the line, one of which was lost by being driven on shore, and another was blown up. In America, general Clinton took possession of Charles-town, while colonel Tarleton acquired fame, by his conduct in several skirmishes. The execution of major André, adjutant-general to the British forces, who was taken in disguise within the American lines, and condemned as a spy, will always be remembered with regret.

In

In 1781, a desperate engagement happened off the Dogger-bank, between a squadron of English ships, under admiral Hyde Parker, and an equal number of Dutch ships, commanded by admiral Zoutman. The action was maintained for three hours and forty minutes, with equal gallantry on both sides; but to whom the victory belonged seems to remain doubtful. The Dutch ships bore away for the Texel, with their convoy, and the English ships were too much disabled to follow them.

Not long after, earl Cornwallis gained a victory over general Green, near Guildford, in North Carolina. The day, however, was now hastily arriving, in which Britain was to give up all hopes of ever conquering America; for soon after, De Grasse reached the Chesapeake, and, before admiral Graves could attack him, general Washington, with his assistance, surrounded earl Cornwallis's army, who were obliged to surrender prisoners of war to the combined forces of France and America.

The constant majorities in favour of lord North now began to diminish, and the administration A. D. 1782. lost ground upon every important question; till, on the 8th of March, lord John Cavendish having moved several resolutions as accusations of the ministry, and these being rejected on a division, but by a very small majority, lord North signified his intention of resigning; and, on the 20th, declared he was no longer minister. A complete and radical change took place in administration. The marquis of Rockingham was appointed first lord of the treasury, in the room of lord North; lord John Cavendish, chancellor of the exchequer; the earl of Shelburne and Mr. Fox, principal secretaries of state; Mr. Burke, pay-master of the forces; lord Camden, president of the council; the duke of Richmond, master of the ordnance; and admiral Keppel, first lord of the admiralty. Such measures

measures being immediately taken, as tended to effectuate a general peace, negotiations were opened for that purpose at Paris.

But the death of the marquis of Rockingham, which happened on the first of July following, threw the cabinet into confusion. He was succeeded by the earl of Shelburne, whose appointment gave so much offence to some of his colleagues, that Mr. Fox, lord John Cavendish, Mr. Burke, and two or three more, immediately resigned their places. Mr. T. Townsend was made secretary of state, in the room of Mr. Fox; and Mr. William Pitt, son to the late earl of Chatham, who, though at a very early time of life, had already greatly distinguished himself in parliament, was prevailed upon, at this very critical period, to accept the office of chancellor of the exchequer, in the room of lord John Cavendish.

The grand work of peace was, however, carried on by the present ministry; and a provisional treaty with America signed at Paris, by which the colonies were acknowledged to be "free, sovereign, and independent states." Such was the end of the contest between Great Britain and the American colonies; a contest in which the former had expended upwards of one hundred millions of money, together with many thousand valuable lives, and had obtained nothing in return but disgrace and loss of territory.

Gibraltar, which had long been invested by the Spaniards, still continued to be vigorously besieged; and the reputation of the British arms was there nobly sustained by general Elliot. That gallant governor had frequently permitted the besieged, without interruption, nearly to bring their works to perfection, and then almost totally demolished them. The Spaniards, therefore, on the 13th of September, made a very formidable attack upon the fortrefs, with ten large battering ships, from 600 to 1400 tons burden, under the command

command of admiral Moreno. A heavy cannonading was kept up on both sides, till at length the ships were set on fire by red-hot balls from the bastions, and then totally destroyed by the gun-boats, under the conduct of captain Roger Curtis.

Among the losses sustained by Great Britain, during this year, were those of the island of Minorca, and the province of West Florida. The British navy also suffered greatly through various accidents. The *Ville de Paris*, *le Glorieux*, *le Hector*, and the *Ramilies*, all foundered at sea, in their return from the West Indies; and the *Royal George*, of 100 guns, was overfet and sunk, through mismanagement, at Spithead. Admiral Kempenfelt, a very brave and meritorious officer, and upwards of 700 persons, perished in her.

On the 20th of January, 1783, the preliminary articles of peace between Great Britain, France, and Spain, were signed at Versailles by the respective ministers of those courts. But the general pacification was not completed during the administration of lord Shelburne. For when the terms of peace underwent a scrutiny in the house of commons, they were so severely censured, that the ministry, of which that nobleman was the head, found themselves obliged to give way to the superior parliamentary interest of Mr. Fox and lord North, who had by this time formed that famous coalition, which has been so much the subject of wonder and reprobation. The duke of Portland was promoted to be first lord of the treasury; lord North and Mr. Fox were appointed secretaries of state; lord John Cavendish was made chancellor of the exchequer; lord Keppel, first lord of the admiralty; lord Stormont, president of the council; and the earl of Carlisle, keeper of the privy seal.

About this period, intelligence was received from the East Indies, that a peace had been concluded with the Mahrattas; an event which promised an interval  
of

of stability to our affairs in the East. This favourable circumstance was soon followed by the death of Hyder Ally, whose enterprising spirit, and vigour of mind, were eminent; and who was animated against the English with an hostility the most rooted and incurable.

The terms of the peace being finally adjusted and established, the definitive treaties between all the contending powers, Great Britain, France, Spain, America, and Holland, were signed on the 3d of September. They were soon after ratified; and on the 6th of October, peace was proclaimed with the usual solemnities in the cities of London and Westminster. At the conclusion of the war, the national debt amounted to the enormous sum of two hundred and forty millions sterling; and the annual interest of the same to nine millions.

As soon as peace was concluded, the next object that engaged the attention of the ministry, was the state of our affairs in India. Mr. Fox brought in a bill, proposing no less than to take from the directors and proprietors of the East India company, the entire management of their territorial and commercial affairs, and obliging them to deliver up their books of accounts, and the whole of their property, to certain commissioners therein appointed. In its progress through the house of commons, the company petitioned against the bill, and were heard by their counsel, who urged, that it was an invasion of private property, as well as a violation of public faith, and was therefore dishonourable, impolitic, and unjust. But the most formidable antagonist it met with in that house, was Mr. Pitt, who, with his usual force of argument, objected to it, as being an annihilation of the charter of the company, and calculated to establish a new and unconstitutional influence. Notwithstanding this, through the interest of the coalesced parties, it was carried in the house of commons.

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In the house of lords, however, the bill was rejected by a majority of 19. The king immediately determined upon the removal of the ministry, and the seals were demanded of the secretaries of state at 12 o'clock at night. The places of first lord of the treasury and chancellor of the exchequer were conferred on Mr. William Pitt; lord Gower was appointed president of the council; the duke of Rutland, keeper of the privy seal; and the marquis of Carmarthen and lord Sydney, secretaries of state; the great seal, which had been held in commission, was restored to lord Thurlow.

Early in 1784, his majesty thought proper to dissolve the parliament. Never was any decision more full and explicit than that which was given by the people of England, at the present general election, in favour of the popularity of Mr. Pitt, who, upon the opening of the new parliament, framed a bill for the regulation of the East India company, in opposition to that of Mr. Fox, lately rejected. By this bill they were made subject to a board of controul, consisting of five commissioners appointed by the king.

In the East Indies, the campaign of 1783 turned out successful; which was chiefly owing to the death of the celebrated Hyder Ally. But the company soon after found a formidable enemy in his successor. Tippoo Saib, a person whose character was equally great and splendid. This chief defeated the British army, under general Matthews, in a bloody and decisive engagement, soon after the command devolved upon him; he likewise gained many other advantages. A treaty, however, was at length agreed upon between him and the company.

The year 1785 was also a period of political contention. Mr. Pitt presented to the house a string of propositions, tending to settle the commerce of England and Ireland, on a mutual and equitable footing. They met with great opposition in both houses; and, though



though they with difficulty passed, they were so increased and mutilated, as to retain hardly any thing of their original form. On being sent over to Ireland, they met with great opposition in that kingdom, and were soon thrown out with contempt, both countries considering them as destructive to their own interest.

In 1786, a bill was brought into parliament by Mr. Pitt, to form a sinking fund of one million annually, to be vested in commissioners, and to be applied to the reduction of the national debt; which passed both houses, and received the royal assent.

Much about the same time, a treaty of commerce and navigation between his Britannic majesty, and the most Christian king was signed at Versailles, by Mr. Eden, and the count de Vergennes. By this treaty, which was of a new and most extensive nature, an intercourse was established between France and Great Britain, on the basis of reciprocal advantages. Duties were lowered, and privileges and rights granted to the manufacturing and trading subjects of each kingdom, that had hitherto never been known between them.

In 1787, Mr. Beaufoy, member for Great Yarmouth, made a motion, at the request of the dissenting congregations in and about London, for taking into consideration the repeal of the corporation and test acts; which, after a long debate, passed in the negative, 100 ayes, to 178 noes.

In 1788, the king was seized with a violent disorder, and continued ill a long time with very little hopes of recovery. In December, the parliament met, when both houses turned their thoughts towards the appointment of a regent, during his majesty's incapacity to assume the third branch of the legislature, which was now extinct. Upon this subject, a warm debate took place in the house of commons, wherein it was urged by Mr. Fox, and the other adherents to the cause of the prince of Wales, that his royal highness has as clear

clear and express a right to exercise the sovereign power, during the illness and incapacity of his majesty, as if his royal parent had undergone a natural decease. On the other side, it was asserted, that in case of the interruption of the personal exercise of the royal authority, it belonged to the other branches of the legislature, to provide for the temporary exercise of the royal authority in such a manner as they should think requisite; and that, *unless by their decision*, the prince of Wales had no right, strictly speaking, to assume the government.

During the course of this debate, Mr. Pitt, the chancellor of exchequer, made use of the following emphatic expressions. He maintained, that it would appear from every precedent, and from every page of our history, that to assert such a right in the prince of Wales, or any one else, *independent of the decision* of the two houses of parliament, was little less than *treason to the constitution of the country*; from which he drew this conclusion, *that the prince of Wales had no more right to exercise the powers of government, than any other person in these realms.*

On the 16th of January, 1789, a resolution was carried, but not without great opposition, "That his royal highness the prince of Wales should be empowered to exercise and administer the royal authority, according to the laws and constitution of Great Britain, in the name, and on behalf of his majesty, under the style and title of *regent* of the kingdom; and to use, execute, and perform all authorities, prerogatives, acts of government, and administration of the same, *subject to such limitations and exceptions as shall be provided.*"

On the 18th of February, however, the report given by the physicians was, "that his majesty continued to advance in his recovery." Upon the receipt of this information, which seemed to diffuse a general joy through every rank, as soon as the house of lords met

on the following day, the lord chancellor acquainted the house, that since his majesty's physicians had pronounced him to be in a state of convalescence, the accounts of his majesty's progressive improvement had increased from day to day; and the intelligence was that day so favourable, that he conceived every noble lord would agree with him in acknowledging, that it would be indecent and improper to go on with the proceedings in which they were engaged, under the present circumstances, when the principle of the bill might possibly be entirely done away. The house was accordingly adjourned from time to time, till the 10th of March, when a commission, signed by the king's own hand, was issued to open the session of parliament. A speech was thereupon made in his name by the lord chancellor; and addresses being, in return, voted both to his majesty and the queen, the regency bill was upon motion discharged.

The 23rd of May being appointed by royal proclamation as a day of general thanksgiving, on account of his majesty's recovery, deeply impressed with the signal mercy he had received, the king went publicly to St. Paul's, accompanied by the queen, the royal family, both houses of parliament, the great officers of state, and the whole corporation of London, in order to return thanks to God. The universal joy and loyalty which pervaded the cities of London and Westminster, and the grandeur of the spectacle, exhibited on this joyful occasion, are scarcely to be described or conceived. The whole was conducted with the greatest order and regularity, and an uncommon decorum was observed in the behaviour of the lower ranks.

## CHAP. I. concluded.

**I**N the month of June, 1789, one of the most unexpected revolutions took place in France, that ever happened in the political hemisphere of Europe, in which the interest and commerce of England are materially concerned. On that day, the French king was divested of all his absolute authority, and reduced to one of the most limited monarchs in Europe. The Bastile, that den of slavery and cruelty, was so effectually demolished by the populace, as literally not to leave one stone upon another. All the unhappy state prisoners, many of whom had languished for years in this execrable abode, were now set at liberty. Among the number was lord Mazarine, an Irish nobleman, who had been confined there for debt near 30 years. The national assembly, who were chosen by the people, took from the king the power of making war and peace, and abolished all titles of peerages, it being their opinion, that no distinctions should be known, but such as arise from virtue, genius, and merit.

On the 14th of July, a solemn festival was held at Paris, when the French monarch made a formal surrender of that power, which is dangerous  
 A. D. 1790. in the hands of any single man. From this day, he was no longer to be considered as the absolute tyrant, but as the father and servant of his people. On the above day, in the field of Mars, he took a solemn oath to abide by the new constitution, as prescribed by a decree of the national assembly. But notwithstanding the solemn oath he had taken, the king soon afterwards endeavoured to make his escape to the German dominions, when he was stopped on the borders of Flanders, brought back to Paris, and closely guarded in one of the royal palaces. In the mean time, the national assembly drew up a new code of laws, presented them to the king, who signed them,  
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and for a time allayed the tumults in that kingdom.

In 1791, a dangerous riot took place at Birmingham. A public meeting having been announced to commemorate the anniversary of the French revolution, at the hotel, in Temple Row, a number of persons repaired thither for that purpose; at last a mob assembling in the evening, destroyed all the windows of the building, demolished Dr. Priestley's chapel, his house at Fair Hill, and several other houses. The doctor's grand philosophical apparatus, his extensive and valuable library, together with his manuscripts and furniture, were all committed to the flames. The riots continued 5 or 6 days, during which time, the mob, being reinforced by many thousands from the neighbouring country, razed to the ground, and reduced to ashes a great number of fine edifices.

In 1792, lord Cornwallis made an advantageous peace with Tippoo Saib in the East Indies, and received the two sons of the tyrant, as hostages. Leopold, emperor of Germany, died this year; and the king of Sweden was shot at a masquerade, by one of his own subjects. On the 10th of August there was a dreadful engagement at the Thuilleries. The Swiss guards were vanquished and massacred, while the king and royal family were compelled to take refuge in the national assembly. On the 2nd of September, a terrible insurrection happened at Paris, when the prisons were forced open, and all the state prisoners and confined priests, massacred.

The French convention having decreed the abolition of royalty, and the formation of a republic, resolved that their king, Lewis XVI. should be tried before them. The trial accordingly took place, and this tribunal, which absurdly exercised at once the incompatible characters of accusers, prosecutors and judges, condemned the unfortunate monarch, who was publicly beheaded on the 21st of January 1793.

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On the 1st of February, the French declared war against England and Holland. In the course of the summer, Valenciennes surrendered to the duke of York, and Toulon to Lord Hood; but the latter place was afterwards evacuated.

About this time Paris presented a scene of horrors, unparalleled in the history of civilized nations. Numerous executions took place, not only of individuals, but whole families suspected of disaffection to the ruling power, which was now chiefly in the hands of Maximilian Robespierre, a man risen from obscurity, and known only for his crimes. Among the illustrious victims of his cruelty was the helpless and unoffending queen, who perished by the guillotine, on the 16th of October, in the 38th year of her age. Her sufferings had been previously aggravated by the mockery of a trial.

On the 1st of June, 1794, lord Howe defeated the French grand fleet, took 6 sail of the line, and sunk 3. The Corsicans, soon after, acknowledged George III. as king of Corsica, and accepted of a new constitution. Towards the end of July, Robespierre and his party were overthrown at Paris, and himself with 20 others guillotined.

In 1795, Holland was over-run by the French, when the stadtholder and his family fled for refuge to this country, and had apartments assigned to them in Hampton-court palace.

The trial of Warren Hastings, esq. at the bar of the house of lords, which commenced in 1788, now closed, the court having sat 149 days, with intervals of long adjournments. Mr. Hastings was acquitted.

In 1796, admiral Elphinstone captured a large Dutch fleet under admiral Lucas, at the Cape of Good Hope, without firing a gun, when the Dutch spice islands surrendered to the English.

On the 29th of December, lord Malmesbury, who had  
been

been sent to negotiate a peace with France, arrived in London, having been compelled to quit Paris in 24 hours.

In 1797, admiral sir John Jervis, with 15 sail, defeated the Spanish fleet, consisting of 27 sail of the line, and 9 frigates, off Cape St. Vincent's, and took 4 ships of the line. He was, in consequence, created earl St. Vincent.

On the 12th of May, an alarming mutiny broke out on board the fleet at Sheerness. The mutineers blocked up the entrance of the Thames, hoisted bloody flags, and compelled all the ships of war in the Medway and at the Nore to join the flag of revolt. The mutiny spread into the squadron of admiral Duncan, most of whose ships left him and joined the mutineers at the Nore. Several of them were now taken into custody, when Parker, the leader, and some of his co-delegates were executed.

On the 11th of October, admiral Duncan defeated the Dutch fleet, and captured their admiral, vice-admiral, and 9 ships of the line, for which he was created a viscount.

In 1798, the French entered Rome, and planted the tree of liberty before the capitol. They likewise overran Switzerland. On the 7th of July, Bonaparte landed at Alexandria, in Egypt. But on the 1st of August, lord Nelson gained a signal victory over the French fleet at the mouth of the Nile.

In 1799, the question of the union of Great Britain and Ireland was carried in both the Irish houses, viz. in the lords by a majority of 32, and in the commons by a majority of 2. In the course of the following year it was agreed to in Britain.

In September, 14,000 troops embarked at Deal, for Holland, as did also the duke of York, prince William of Gloucester, and lord Chatham. The expedition, however, was unsuccessful.

In 1800, the Russian ambassador left this country under

under the passport granted for a courier. An embargo on English ships soon after took place at Cronstado, when 130 vessels were seized. In reference to this extraordinary conduct, the Petersburg court gazette published the following order: "Whereas we have learned that the island of Malta, lately in the possession of the French, has been surrendered to the English troops, but as it is yet uncertain whether the agreement entered into on the 30th of December, 1798, will be fulfilled, according to which this island, after its capture, is to be restored to the order of St. John of Jerusalem, of which his majesty, the emperor of all the Russias, is grand master, his imperial majesty, being determined to defend his rights, has been pleased to command that an embargo shall be laid on all English ships in the ports of his empire, till the above mentioned convention shall be fulfilled."

Much about the same time an attempt was made on the life of Bonaparte, as he was going to the opera, by an explosion of gunpowder, when some of the conspirators were put to death, and 120 banished.

## CHAP. II.

### ECCLESIASTICAL HISTORY.

**D**URING the reign of queen Anne, a complaint was made to the house of commons of two sermons preached and published by Dr. Sacheverel, rector of St. Saviour's, Southwark, as containing positions contrary to the principles of the revolution, to the present government, and to the protestant succession. Sacheverel was a clergyman, of narrow intellects, and an over-heated imagination. He had acquired some popularity among those who distinguished themselves by the name of high churchmen, and took all occasions to vent his animosity against the dissenters. The house



house having considered of the complaint, ordered the doctor to be taken into custody, and impeached him at the bar of the house of lords. Upon this occasion, the tories were not idle. They boldly affirmed that the whigs, who, they said, had formed a design to pull down the church, only intended by the present prosecution to try their strength before they would proceed openly to the execution of their project, and the doctor was consequently considered as the champion of the high party. The eyes of the whole kingdom were turned upon this extraordinary trial. It lasted three weeks, during which all other business was suspended; and the queen herself was every day present, though in quality of a private spectator. A vast multitude constantly attended him to and from Westminster-hall, striving to kiss his hand, and praying for his deliverance, as if he had been a martyr and confessor. The queen's sedan was beset by the populace, exclaiming, "God bless your majesty and the church. We hope your majesty is for Dr. Sacheverel." The mob destroyed several meeting houses, and plundered the dwelling houses of many eminent dissenters. After obstinate disputes, and much virulent altercation, Sacheverel was found guilty. Several peers, however, entered a protest against the decision, which was, that he should be prohibited from preaching for three years, and his two sermons be burnt by the hands of the common hangman. The lenity of the sentence was in a great measure owing to the dread of popular resentment. The doctor's friends considered it as a victory obtained over the whig faction, and they celebrated their triumph with bonfires and illuminations.

In 1780, in consequence of some indulgencies lately granted by the parliament to Roman Catholics, a great concourse of people, amounting, it is supposed, to 60,000, wearing blue cockades, assembled in St. George's fields, in order to petition the two houses against

gainst these marks of lenity. From thence they proceeded by different routs, in a quiet and orderly manner, to Palace-yard, where, being augmented by a great number of desperadoes, and evil designing persons, who put cockades in their hats, and cried, "No popery," with an intent to rob and commit outrages, under the sanction of the associations, a riot ensued. A lawless mob, for several days, paraded the streets, pulling down houses, setting open prisons, releasing the prisoners, burning houses, stealing the effects, and extorting money from the inhabitants; till the military put a stop to their outrages, by firing upon them, and taking great numbers into custody. The ringleaders were afterwards tried, condemned, and hanged upon the several spots where they had committed their depredations. The most singular of these transactions, was their setting fire to the prisons of the fleet, the king's bench, and Newgate; and the most alarming of their attempts, that which they made on the bank of England, with an avowed design to plunder it, and to destroy the books. Lord George Gordon was afterwards tried for having collected this assembly; but as it appeared that he was actuated merely by religious principles, and had never encouraged the mob to commit, nor even expected they would commit, any outrage, he was acquitted.

Fanaticism is not yet wholly banished from the earth, and ambition still less. This insurrection is a proof, that it is easy to stir up the people with the cry, *Religion is in danger*. Who knows what the consequence of such a tumult might have been, if instead of a lord George Gordon, it had been headed by another Cromwell.

This observation is corroborated by the late riots of Birmingham, when the cry, *Great is Diana of the Ephesians*, excited the mob to burn the houses of inoffensive citizens, destroy their meeting-houses, and offer violence to their persons.

The established religion in Scotland was formerly of a rigid nature, and partook of all the austerities of Calvinism, and of too much of the intolerance of popery. At present it is mild and gentle; and the sermons, and other theological writings, of many of the modern Scottish divines, are equally distinguished by good sense and moderation. It is to be wished, however, that this moderation was not too often interrupted by the fanaticism not only of lay seceders, but of regular ministers.

Scotland, during the time of episcopacy, contained two archbishopricks, St. Andrew's and Glasgow; and twelve bishopricks, namely, Edinburgh, Dunkeld, Aberdeen, Murray, Brechin, Dumblain, Ross, Caithness, Orkney, Gallaway, Argyle, and the Isles.

### CHAP. III.

#### GOVERNMENT.

**I**N the reign of William, the perpetual opposition between the whigs and tories, and the necessity of large supplies to support the war on the continent, gave rise to two great and growing evils, intimately connected with each other; national debt, and the corruption of the house of commons. At the same time that the king, by a pernicious funding system, was loading the state with immense sums, borrowed to maintain his continental connections, he was liberal of the public money to his servants at home; and employed it with little ceremony, to bring over his enemies, or to procure a majority in parliament.

In order to put a stop to this corruption, so far as it affected the representatives of the people, a bill was brought in for triennial parliaments; and William found himself under the necessity of passing it, or of losing the vote of supply, with which it was made to

go hand in hand. He was besides afraid to exert the influence of the crown, in defeating a bill of so much consequence to the nation; more especially as the queen, whose death he was sensible would weaken his authority, was then indisposed. A similar bill was extorted from Charles I. but repealed, soon after the restoration, in compliment to Charles II. To this imprudent compliance may be ascribed the principal disorders during that and the subsequent reign. A house of commons, elected every three years, would have formed such a strong bulwark to liberty, as must have baffled and discouraged all the attacks of arbitrary power. 'The more honest and independent part of the community, therefore, zealously promoted the present law; which, while it continued in force, certainly contributed to stem the tide of corruption, and to produce a more fair representation of the people.

The speedy and fortunate suppression of that rebellion, in 1715, as must ever be the case in all free governments, increased the influence of the crown. The whig ministry, no longer under any apprehensions from the encroachments of arbitrary power, and willing utterly to crush their political enemies, without foreseeing the consequences as to public liberty, framed a bill for repealing the triennial act, lately thought essential, by their own party, to the freedom of the English constitution, and for *extending the duration* of parliaments to the term of *seven years*. This bill, though warmly opposed by the tories, (who now, in contradiction to their principles, took the popular side of all questions,) and by many independent and unprejudiced members of both houses, was carried by a great majority; and George I. by the uniform support of the whigs, who in their love of power forgot their former maxims, found himself firmly seated on the British throne.

Sir Robert Walpole was considered as first minister of

of England when George I. died, and some difference having happened between him, and the prince of Wales, it was generally thought, upon the accession of the latter to the crown, that sir Robert would be displaced. That might have been the case, could another person have been found equally capable, as he was, to manage the house of commons, and to gratify that predilection for Hanover which George II. inherited from his father. No minister ever understood better the temper of the people of England, and none, perhaps, ever tried it more. He filled all places of power, trust, and profit, and almost the house of commons itself, with his own creatures; but peace was his darling object, because he thought that war must be fatal to his power. During his long administration, he never lost a question that he was in earnest to carry. The excise scheme was the first measure that gave a shock to his power, and even that he could have carried, had he not been afraid of the spirit of the people. He was so far from checking the freedom of debate, that he bore with equanimity the most scurrilous abuse that was thrown out to his face. He gave way to one or two prosecutions for libels, in compliance to his friends, who thought themselves affected by them; but it is certain, that the press of England was never more free than during his administration. And as to his pacific system, it undoubtedly more than repaid to the nation all that was required to support it, by the increase of her trade and the improvement of her manufactures. With regard to the king's own personal concern in public matters, Walpole was rather his minister than his favourite; and his majesty often hinted to him, as Walpole himself has been heard to acknowledge, that he was responsible for all the measures of government.

## CHAP. IV.

## LITERATURE.

THE names of Newton and Locke adorned the reign of William III. and he had a particular esteem for the latter, as he had also for Tillotson and Burnet, though he was far from being liberal to men of genius. During this reign Locke wrote his *Essay on Government*, and Swift, his *Tale of a Tub*. These are two of the most excellent prose compositions in our language, whether we consider the style or matter. The former is an example of close manly reasoning, and the latter of the irresistible force of ridicule, when supported by wit, humour, and satire.

But as William, though a powerful prince, and the prime mover of the political machine of Europe, was regarded in England, by one half of the nation, as only the head of a faction, many of the nobility and gentry kept at a distance from court; so that the advance of taste was very inconsiderable, till the reign of queen Anne. Then the splendor of heroic actions called off, for a time, the attention of all parties from political disputes, to contemplate the glory of their country. Then appeared a croud of great men, whose characters are well known, and whose names are familiar to every ear. Then subsisted in full force that natural connection between the learned and the great, by which the latter never fail to be gainers. Swift, Addison, Congreve, Rowe, Steele, Prior, Pope, and other men of genius in that age, not only enjoyed the friendship and familiarity of the principal persons in power, but most of them in early life obtained places in some of the less burthenome departments of government, which put it in their power to pass the rest of their days in ease and independence.

Thus raised to respect, above the necessity of writing for

for bread, and enabled to follow their particular vein, several of those men of genius united their talents, in furnishing the public with a daily paper, under the name of the *Spectator*; which, by combating with reason and raillery, the faults in composition and the improprieties in behaviour, as well as the reigning vices and follies, had a wonderful effect upon the taste and manners of the nation. It contributed greatly to polish and improve both.

The ministers of George I. were the patrons of erudition, and some of them were no mean proficient themselves. George II. was himself no Mæcenas, yet his reign yielded to none of the preceding in the numbers of learned and ingenious men it produced. The bench of bishops was never known to be so well provided with able prelates, as it was in the early years of his reign; a proof that his nobility and ministers were judges of literary qualifications. In other departments of erudition, the favour of the public generally supplied the coldness of the court. After the rebellion in the year 1745, when Mr. Pelham was considered as first minister, this screen between government and literature was in a great measure removed, and men of genius began then to taste the royal bounty.

Since that period, great progress has been made in useful science and polite learning. Hutcheson, Hartley, Reid, Johnson, Hawkesworth, Kippis, and Paley, have excelled in philosophy, morality, and biography; Sherlock, Porteous, Watson, Blair, Campbell, and Gerard, in divinity and belles lettres; Keill, Maclaurin, Ferguson, Walker, Garnet, Nicholson, and Dinwiddie, in mathematics, astronomy, experimental philosophy, and chemistry; Hume, Robertson, Stuart, and Gibbon, in history; Fielding, Richardson, and Sterne, in works of fancy and imagination.

No nation in the world can produce so many examples of true eloquence as the English senate; witness  
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the fine speeches made by both houses of parliament, in the reign of Charles I. and those that have been printed since the accession of the present family.

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## CHAP. V.

### ARTS.

**D**URING the course of the last 50 years, societies, formed for that purpose, have much contributed to the improvement of agriculture. For the art of modern gardening, we are indebted to the taste and genius of Kent. He taught us to *imitate* nature, or more properly speaking *to act upon her plan*, in forming our pleasure grounds, instead of impressing upon every natural object the hard stamp of art; he taught us, that the perfection of gardening, consists in humouring and adorning, not in constraining nature; consequently, that straight walks, regular parterres, circular and square pieces of water, and trees cut in the shape of animals, are utterly inconsistent with true taste. In a word, the whole secret of modern gardening consists in making proper use of natural scenery, wood and water, hill and valley, in conjunction with architecture, so as to give beauty and variety to the embellished ground; in judiciously veiling and exposing the surrounding country; in contrasting the luxuriant meadow with the barren heath, the verdant slope with the rugged steep, the sylvan temple with the ruined tower, the meandering rill with the majestic river, and the smooth surface of the lake, or artificial sea, with Nature's most sublime object, a view of the boundless and ever-agitated ocean.

The printing of linen and cotton cloths has been carried to such perfection, as to surpass in beauty those of India. Our paper for the lining of rooms has been  
taught



taught to imitate velvet and fatten, and even to rival tapestry. Much taste and fancy have been displayed in the patterns of our figured silks; and our carpets vie with those of Persia in fabric, equal them in lustre, and exceed them in harmony of colours.

In architecture, Inigo Jones found a successor not unworthy of himself in Sir Christopher Wren, rendered immortal by the plan of St. Paul's and of St. Stephen's Walbroke. Sir William Chambers, Wyatt, Adam, and others, have adorned the capital and every part of the kingdom with edifices in the purest taste of antiquity. They have united elegance with conveniency, and lightness with solidity.

Dryden, Pope, Thomson, Gray, Cowper, Goldsmith, Beattie, Hayley, Ogilvie, Ramsay, and Burns, are names celebrated in the annals of *poetry*. Nor have the *Muses* been courted in vain by Southey, Pratt, Bloomfield, and the amiable author of the *Pleasures of Hope*.

*Hogarth*, the first eminent English painter, if we except Scott, who excelled in sea-pieces, may be said to have formed a new school. But *Hogarth* knew nothing of the elegance of design, the delicacy of drawing, or the magic of colours. These were reserved for English painters of a higher order. Copley's earl of Chatham, West's Departure of *Régulus*, his Pennsylvania Charter, and his Death of *Wolfe*, to say nothing of Reynolds's *Ugolino*, fill the mind with noble ideas, and awaken the heart to generous emotions. These painters have made public virtue visible in some of its most meritorious acts. They have painted as became the sons of freedom.

Engraving, of which painting may be said to be the prototype, has not made less progress in England during the present century than the parent art. Historical pictures can only become the property of the rich, and are very liable to be injured by time or accident. Hence the utility of engraving in plates of copper. It multiplies

multiplies copies at a moderate price. The exhibitions of painting and-sculpture, in Somerset-House, have been extremely favourable to the arts, by promoting a spirit of emulation and exciting a greater attention to works of genius of this kind among the public in general.

Musick has been much encouraged during the present reign. The grand concerts, in the capital, afford ample scope to the native composers; whilst the Opera-House, or Italian theatre, calls forth all the talents of foreign masters, as well as all the powers of execution, both vocal and instrumental, by the most liberal rewards, for the entertainments of the nobility and gentry.

## CHAP. VI.

### BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES.

**D**R. *John Tillotson*, who died in 1694, was the son of a clothier in Yorkshire, and received his education at Cambridge. Though he was bred among the puritans, he cheertully conformed at the restoration to the church of England, and became curate of Cheshunt, in Hertfordshire. In 1663, the society of Lincoln's Inn having made choice of him as their preacher, he was soon after appointed dean of Canterbury. He distinguished himself by his zeal against the progress of popery, both in his preaching and from the press. His sermons are remarkable for elegance and perspicuity. He attended Lord Russel, who was beheaded in 1683, and it is a singular fact, that he urged upon him, as also did Dr. Burnet, the doctrine of non-resistance, a principle which they both saw reason to renounce afterwards. At the revolution he was taken into the entire confidence of king William and queen Mary; and when Sancroft was suspended,

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the metropolitical feat was conferred on him, much against his inclination. He was violently assailed with abuse by the non-juring party, to all of which he paid little attention, and when some of the libellers were taken up, he laboured to get them discharged.

Sir *William Temple*, a celebrated statesman, who died in 1700, rendered his country important services as ambassador to the United States, particularly in effecting the triple league between England, Holland, and Sweden, in 1688, and in bringing about the marriage of the prince of Orange to lady Mary, daughter of the duke of York. In 1680 he retired from public affairs, and divided his time between his books and his gardens, but he was often consulted by the persons who managed the government, and was often visited by king William. He was a *strict observer of truth*, being of opinion that none who failed once ought ever to be trusted again. He hated the servitude of courts, saying he could never be busy to no purpose, as many often are there; and he was always unwilling to enter upon any employment but that of a public minister. His conversation was easy and pleasant, especially at table, where he said ill humour ought never to come. He hated dispute, and avoided expostulations, which he used to say might sometimes do well between lovers, but never between friends. In his *Memoirs and Letters* he improved the harmony of the English language. His *Miscellanies* contain a great many curious pieces, which display a considerable depth of thought.

*John Dryden*, esq. a celebrated English poet, was born of an eminent family, in Northamptonshire, in 1631, and educated at Westminster school, under the famous Dr. Busby, from whence he removed to Trinity college, Cambridge. His reputation as a poet, together with his attachment to the court, procured him the place of poet-laureat on the death of Davenant  
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in 1668. In 1671, he was exposed to ridicule on the stage in the character of Bays, in the duke of Buckingham's comedy of *The Rehearsal*. In 1679, appeared an essay on satire, written by the earl of Mulgrave and Mr. Dryden. This piece contained some severe strokes on the earl of Rochester, who employed three fellows to cudgel Dryden as he came out of a coffee-house in Covent-garden. Having turned catholic in the reign of James II. he was dismissed from the office of poet-laureat at the revolution, and was succeeded by Shadwell, whom he severely satirized in his *Mac Flecknoë*. In 1695, he published his admirable translation of Virgil. Dryden's parts did not decline with his years. He was an improving writer to the last, even to near 70 years of age; improving even in fire and imagination, as well as in judgment: witness his *Ode on St. Cæcilia's Day*, and his *Fables*, his latest performances. He was equally excellent in verse and prose. "I have heard him frequently own with pleasure," says Congreve, "that if he had any talent for English prose, it was owing to his having often read the writings of the great archbishop Tillotson. His versification and his numbers he could learn of nobody; for he first possessed those talents in perfection in our tongue." He died in 1701, and was buried in Westminster abbey, where there is a monument to his memory, erected by John Sheffield, duke of Buckingham. Mr. Dryden married lady Elizabeth Howard, daughter of the earl of Berkshire, by whom he had three sons.

Mr. *Thomas Brown*, of facetious memory; who wrote satires, and humorous essays, was contemporary with Dryden. But his wit being greater than his prudence, brought him frequently within danger of starving. Toward the latter end of Brown's life, however, he was in favour with the earl of Dorset, who invited him to dinner on a Christmas day, with Dryden, and other gentlemen celebrated for ingenuity; when Brown, to his

his agreeable surprize, found a bank note of 50l. under his plate ; and Dryden, at the same time, was presented with another of 100l.

*John Locke*, esq. who died in 1704, was the most celebrated philosopher of the age he lived in, and one of the brightest ornaments of English literature. His *Essays on Human Understanding*, and his *Treatise on Education*, have rendered his name immortal. Mr. Locke gives the following advice to a gentleman who complained that he had lost many ideas by their slipping out of his mind. "Never go without a pen and ink, or something, to write down all thoughts of moment that come into your mind. I must own I have often omitted it, and have often repented of it. The thoughts that come unsought, and, as it were, drop into the mind, are commonly the most valuable of any we have, and therefore should be secured, because they seldom return."

*Dr. Gilbert Burnet*, who died in 1715, was a native of Edinburgh, and educated at Aberdeen. At the age of 26, he was appointed professor of divinity at Glasgow, when he married lady Margaret Kennedy, daughter of the earl of Cassilis. In 1674, he resigned his professorship and settled in London, where he was appointed preacher at the Rolls, and lecturer of St. Clement's. About this time commenced his acquaintance with lord Rochester, which happily ended in his lordship's conversion. In 1668, he settled in Holland on the invitation of the prince of Orange, to whom, in his intended design of invading England, he was of the most important service. In 1689, he was made bishop of Salisbury, and distinguished himself by his moderation towards dissenters, and for extending toleration. In 1699, appeared his exposition of the 39 articles of the church of England, which he had undertaken at the request of archbishop Tillotson. His other publications are the history of the Reformation, and

and of his own time, an excellent treatise on the pastoral care, and several sermons. His life of the earl of Rochester is an admirable performance, which young people should read with attention. It exhibits a picture of the miseries of vice, painted in the most striking and glowing colours. This dissipated nobleman, in his last illness, sent up for all his servants, even to his cow-herd, into his bed-chamber, to declare before them the horrors that he felt at the recollection of his past life, and hoped that what he then suffered from his vicious courses, would have the effect of preventing them from following his example.

*Nicholas Rowe*, esq. an eminent poet, who died in 1718, was bred to the law, but paid more attention to the muses. His first production was, "The ambitious stepmother," which meeting with uncommon success, was, followed by "Tamerlane," "The Fair Penitent," "The Royal Convert," and "Jane Shore." He likewise translated Lucan's *Pharsalia* into English verse. He held several places under government, and upon the accession of George I. was made poet-laureat.

The Rev. *John Flamsteed*, a celebrated English astronomer, when very young, discovered a great turn for mathematical learning, and sent to the royal society calculations of some remarkable eclipses of the fixed stars by the moon, for which he received the thanks of that learned body. Sir Jonas Moore introduced him to the king, and most of the nobility at court, and procured for him the place of astronomer royal. In 1675, the foundation stone of the royal observatory was laid, when Mr. Flamsteed removed with all his apparatus to the queen's house at Greenwich, where he resided till his death in 1719. In the philosophical transactions are many of his papers; but his great work is *Historia Cœlestis Britannica*.

*Joseph Addison*, esq. who died in 1719, wrote the most admired papers in the *spectator*, *tatler*, *guardian*, and

and other publications of the same kind. In those papers he has discussed an infinite variety of subjects, both comic and serious, and has treated each so happily, that one would suppose he had studied that alone. He enchants us with all the magic of humour, and all the attractive charms of natural and moral beauty. Our language is more indebted to him, not only for words and phrases, but for images, than to any other writer in prose. His *Cato* is one of our best modern tragedies. In 1716, by his inter-marriage with the countess dowager of Warwick and Holland, he became possessed of Holland house, near Kensington. Here was the scene of his last moments, and of his affecting interview with his son-in-law, the earl of Warwick, to whom he had been tutor, and whose licentious manners he had anxiously, but in vain, endeavoured to repress. As a last effort, he sent for him into the room where he lay at the point of death, hoping that the solemnity of the scene might make some impression upon him. When that young nobleman came, he requested to know his commands, and received the memorable answer, "See in what peace a christian can die," to which Tickell thus alludes :

He taught us how to live ; and, oh ! too high  
A price for knowledge, taught us how to die.

Dr. Johnson, after drawing his character in a forcible and elegant manner, says, " whoever wishes to attain an English style, familiar but not coarse, and elegant but not ostentatious, must give his days and nights to the volumes of Addison.

Dr. *John Keill*, an eminent Scottish mathematician, wrote an Introduction to natural philosophy, which is an admirable preparation for the study of Newton's *Principia*. In 1710 he was chosen Savilian professor of astronomy at Oxford, and, the year following, was appointed decypherer to the queen. In 1718 appeared his *Introduction to Astronomy*. He died in 1721.

*Matthew*

*Matthew Prior*, a celebrated poet and statesman, having lost his father in his childhood, fell into the hands of his uncle, a vintner near Charing-cross, who sent him for some time to Dr. Busby, at Westminster; but, not intending to give him any education beyond that of the school, took him, when he was well advanced in literature, to his own house. Here he attracted the notice of the earl of Dorset, by explaining a disputed passage in one of Horace's odes, in which the earl who frequented the house was a party. By this means he was sent to the university of Cambridge. At the revolution his patron brought him to court, and procured him the appointment of secretary to the plenipotentiaries in the congress at the Hague. King William made him a gentleman of the bed-chamber; and in 1697 he was nominated principal secretary of state in Ireland. After having occupied these, and other high diplomatic posts and lucrative employments, Mr. Prior died, in 1721, fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge. He was often told, that a fellowship was too trifling a thing for him to keep, and even improper for his character: but he replied, that, "every thing he had besides was precarious, and when all failed, that would be bread and cheese; on which account he did not mean to part with it." As the *last piece of human vanity*, he left 500*l.* for his monument in Westminster-abbey.—Prior has written with great variety, and his variety has made him popular. His poems are very correct. He is never low and seldom sublime. Whatever he obtains above mediocrity seems the effort of struggle and of toil. *Alma* has many admirers, and was the only piece among Prior's works of which Pope said that he should wish to be the author.

Sir *Christopher Wren* was the most eminent architect of his age, as well as an excellent mathematician. In 1660, he was chosen Savilian professor of astronomy in Oxford. In 1665, he visited France, and was soon after  
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made surveyor-general of his majesty's works. The conflagration of the city of London gave him many opportunities of employing his genius; for the cathedral of St. Pauls, the parochial churches, and other public structures, which had been destroyed by that dreadful calamity, were rebuilt from his designs, and under his direction. After being president of the royal society, and a member of parliament, he died in 1723.

Sir *Isaac Newton*, who died in 1727, was the greatest philosopher and mathematician that ever appeared in the world. His doctrine of the power of gravitation, and his theory of colours will immortalize his name. He likewise studied and explained the scriptures. Dr. Halley, before he applied himself to this study, was once speaking rather freely on the subject of revelation, in company with this great man, who pointedly said to him, "I am always glad to hear you, sir, when you speak about astronomy, or other parts of mathematics, because that is a subject which you have studied, and well understand; but you should not talk of christianity, for you have *not* studied it; I *have*, and am certain you know nothing of the matter."

Dr. *Samuel Clarke*, rector of St. James's, Westminster, in the opinion of Dr. Johnson, was the most complete literary character that England ever produced. Divinity and mathematics, experimental philosophy and classical learning, metaphysics and critical skill were united in him. He died in 1729.

Sir *Richard Steele*, a writer of great celebrity, who died in 1729, in concert with Swift, Addison, and others, published the *Tatler*, *Spectator*, and *Guardian*. He was a ready composer, well versed in polite literature, and of an exceeding lively genius, but not equal in any respect to his friend Addison.

*William Congreve*, esq. a celebrated poet, was bred to the law; but finding no charms in that profession, he turned his mind to polite literature, particularly to dramatic

dramatic composition, and wrote a comedy, called "The Old Bachelor;" of which Dryden, to whom he was recommended, said, "that he never saw such a first play in his life." This, and other comedies, with the tragedy of the Mourning Bride, procured him the patronage of lord Halifax, who gave him some lucrative employments under government. His honours were still far greater than his profits. Every writer mentioned him with respect; and, among other testimonies to his merit, Steele made him the patron of his Miscellany, and Pope inscribed to him his translation of the Iliad. But he treated the muses with ingratitude; for, having long conversed familiarly with the great, he wished to be considered rather as a man of fashion than of wit; and, when he received a visit from Voltaire, disgusted him by the despicable foppery of desiring to be considered not as an author, but a gentleman; to which the Frenchman replied, "that, if he had been only a gentleman, he should not have come to visit him." He died in 1729.

John Gay, esq. who died in 1732, is well known as the author of beautiful *fables*, which will be read and admired so long as any taste for that kind of writing shall exist. His *Beggar's Opera* had a run unparalleled in the history of the stage, being acted in London 63 days without interruption. Of this performance, when it was printed, the reception was different, according to the different opinions of its readers. Swift commended it for the excellence of its morality, as a piece that *placed all kinds of vice in the strongest and most odious light*; but others censured it as giving encouragement not only to vice, but to crimes, by making a highwayman the hero, and dismissing him at last unpunished. It has been even said, that after the exhibition of the *Beggar's Opera*, the gangs of robbers were evidently multiplied. He was buried in Westminster abbey, with this epitaph, written by himself, engraved on his tomb:

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"Life

“ Life is a jest, and all things show it ;  
 “ I thought so once, but now I know it.”

Dr. *Arbuthnot*, an eminent Scottish writer and physician, who died in 1734, was nearly allied to the noble family of that name. After being educated at Aberdeen, he came to London, and supported himself at first by teaching the mathematics. By accidentally administering relief to prince George of Denmark, he obtained the appointment of physician to his royal highness, and in 1709 he was appointed physician in ordinary to queen Anne, and admitted a fellow of the royal college of physicians. In 1714, he engaged with Pope and Swift in a scheme to write a satire on the abuse of human learning, under the title of *Memoirs of Martinus Scriblerus*. The doctor was one of that bright constellation of wits which adorned the reign of queen Anne. His humour is generally attic, without any mixture of ill-nature, for he was himself a most humane and amiable man. Dr. Swift in the “ verses on his own death,” mentions Dr. Arbuthnot as one of his intimate friends.

“ Here shift the scene to represent,  
 “ How those I love my death lament ;  
 “ Poor *Pope* will grieve a month, and *Gay*  
 “ A week, and Arbuthnot a day ;  
 “ St. John himself\* will scarce forbear,  
 “ To bite his pen and drop a tear ;  
 “ The rest will give a shrug and cry  
 “ *I'm sorry—but we all must die.*”

Dr. *Derham*, who died in 1735, devoted himself to philosophical pursuits, and the agreeable study of nature, which he made subservient to the cause of religion and virtue. His *Physico-Theology*, in which he proves the existence of God, from his works of creation, and his *Astro-Theology*, in which he demonstrates the  
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\* Lord Bolingbroke.

same great truth, from a survey of the heavens, are valuable performances.

Mrs. *Rowe*, an eminent English poetess, whose maiden name was *Singer*, died in 1737. Prior the poet is said to have paid his addresses to her, which she declined accepting, and married Mr. Thomas *Rowe*, an ingenious young gentleman, who soon left her a widow, in which state she continued the remainder of her life. Her *letters*, and *devout exercises of the heart* breathe a spirit of philanthropy and rational piety.

Dr. *Halley*, a famous astronomer, who died in 1742, was the first who observed the great comet in 1680. He had the command of a ship sent out by king *William* for the express purpose of establishing his theory of the variation of the compass, when, by his astronomical discoveries, he greatly improved the art of navigation. He was afterwards appointed professor of geometry in the university of Oxford, and astronomer royal.

Dr. *Saunderson*, author of the "Elements of Algebra," who died in 1739, was deprived of his sight by the small-pox, when he was only 12 months old; so that he retained no more idea of the nature of colours, than if he had been born blind. Notwithstanding this, he acquired a knowledge of the learned languages, and by hearing the works of Euclid and Archimedes read to him in their original Greek, attained the highest pitch of mathematical fame. His unhappy condition procured him many friends, and he was invited to Cambridge, not as a scholar, but as a master, where he taught the *philosophy* and *optics* of Newton to a crowded audience. The queen granted him a mandate for making him a master of arts, in order that he might be qualified for Lucasian professor of the mathematics, to which office he was elected in 1711.

*Alexander Pope*, esq. an illustrious poet, who died in 1744, says in his poems, "that he lisp'd in numbers,  
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and that he could not remember the time when he began to make verses. In the style of fiction it might have been said of him as of Pindar, that when he lay in his cradle, *the bees swarmed about his mouth*. A propensity to versification manifested itself in him as soon as he had read Dryden, whom he preferred to the other poets. At the age of 10, he was impressed with such veneration for his instructor, that he persuaded some friends to take him to the coffee-house which Dryden frequented, and pleased himself with having seen him. So early did he feel the power of harmony, and the zeal of genius. "Who does not wish," says Johnson, "that Dryden could have known the value of the homage that was paid him, and foreseen the greatness of his young admirer." Self-confidence is the first requisite to great undertakings; and he that is pleased with himself, easily imagines that he shall please others. After publishing some well-written odes and translations before he was 14 years of age, Pope went to Benfield, and delighted himself with his own poetry. He tried all styles, and many subjects. He wrote a comedy, a tragedy, and an epic poem, which he afterwards destroyed; and, as he confesses, *thought himself the greatest genius that ever was*. His pastorals first introduced him to the wits of the day; his Windsor Forest added to his growing fame; but his Essay on Criticism, which is a master-piece in the art, extended it far and near. His judgment as a poet being universally acknowledged from those admirable pieces, his next publication no less happily proved the extent of his fancy and the power of his creative imagination. This was the "*Rape of the Lock*," an inimitable display of poetical talents. This is the most airy, the most ingenious, and the most delightful of all his compositions, occasioned by a frolick of gallantry, rather too familiar, in which lord Petre cut off a lock of Mrs. Arabella Fermor's hair. The design of the

Poet

Poet is, as he tells us, is to laugh at *the little unguarded follies of the female sex*. In 1713, appeared his proposals for a translation of "Homer's Iliad," the subscriptions for which amounted to 6,000*l.* besides 1,200*l.* which Lintot gave him for the copy. He then purchased a house at Twickenham, whither he retired with his father and mother. By the assistance of Broome and Fenton, he translated the "Odysssey," and, not long after, appeared his "Essay on Man," an ethical poem, in which there are many beautiful and highly finished passages.

Pope's method of composition was to write his first thoughts in his first words, and gradually to amplify, decorate, rectify, and refine them. He has left in his *Homer* a treasure of poetical elegancies to posterity. His version may be said to have tuned the English tongue; for since its appearance, no writer, however deficient in other powers, has wanted melody. In poetical vigour, Dryden is superior to Pope; but though the former has brighter paragraphs, he has not better poems.

Pope was fretful, and easily displeased. He would sometimes leave lord Oxford silently, no one could tell why, and was to be courted back by more letters and messages than the footmen were willing to carry. His frugality bordered upon parsimony. When he had two guests in his house, he would set a single pint upon the table; and having himself taken two small glasses would retire, and say, *gentlemen I leave you to your wine*. He was however, the friend of religion and virtue; and his letters are replete with professions of benevolence. It has been so long said as to be commonly believed; that the true characters of men may be found in their letters, and that he who writes to his friend lays his heart open before him. But very few can boast of hearts which they dare lay open to themselves, and, certainly, what we hide from ourselves we  
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do not shew to our friends. In the eagerness of conversation the first emotions of the mind often burst out, before they are considered; in the tumult of business, interest and passion have their genuine effect; but a friendly letter is a calm and deliberate performance, in the cool of leisure, in the stillness of solitude, and surely no man sits down to depreciate by design his own character.

Dr. *Jonathan Swift*, dean of St. Patrick's, an illustrious wit, poet, and satirist, was born, according to some, in Ireland, and to others in England, in 1667. He was contented to be called an Irishman by the Irish; but would occasionally call himself an Englishman. In his academical studies at Dublin, he was either not diligent or not happy. It must disappoint every reader's expectations, that, when at the usual time he claimed the bachelorship of arts, he was found by the examiners too conspicuously deficient for regular admission, and obtained his degree at last by special favour; a term in that university to denote want of merit. Of this disgrace it may be easily supposed that he was much ashamed, and shame had its proper effects in producing reformation. He resolved from that time to study eight hours a day, and continued his industry for seven years, with what improvement is sufficiently known. This part of his story well deserves to be remembered; it may afford useful admonition and powerful encouragement to many, whose abilities have been made for a time useless by their passions or pleasures, and who, having lost one part of life in idleness, are tempted to throw away the remainder in despair.

By the death of his uncle, upon whom he had relied for support, he was left destitute, on which he paid a visit to sir William Temple, in England, who received him with great kindness, and employed him in correcting his works. Here he became known to king William

liam, who sometimes visited Temple when he was disabled by the gout, and being attended by Swift in the garden, shewed him how to cut asparagus in the Dutch way. King William's notions were all military ; and he expressed his kindness to Swift, by offering to make him a captain of horse. Having quarrelled with his patron in 1694, he entered into orders, and obtained the prebend of Kilroot, in the diocese of Connor, with about 100*l.* a year, But sir William Temple having been so much used to his company, could not bear his absence, and a reconciliation taking place, Swift returned to England, and this act of kindness so pleased sir William, that when he died, he left him a legacy in money, and his posthumous works. He endeavoured on the death of his friend to procure some preferment in England, but was disappointed, on which he became chaplain and private secretary to lord Berkley, one of the lord justices of Ireland, but was soon afterwards dismissed with the livings of Laracor, and Rathbeggin, in the diocese of Meath. He resided at the first of these places, performing the duties of a parish priest with great exactness and decorum. While he was there, he invited over from England the celebrated Stella, whom he afterwards privately married. This lady was daughter of sir William Temple's steward, and that gentleman had bequeathed her a 1000*l.* in consideration of her father's services. On the accession of queen Anne, Swift became a political writer, which brought him into considerable notice. In 1713 he was appointed dean of St. Patrick's, Dublin. He had set his mind on some good church preferment in England, and had even looked to a bishopric ; this preferment therefore was rather a disappointment than otherwise. The dean was through life much troubled with giddiness of the head, which increased towards the close of it, and at length ended in a total deprivation of reason. He died in this wretched condition, in 1745. In his  
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lucid moments he bequeathed the bulk of his fortune to erect a hospital in Dublin for idiots and lunatics.

It was said in a preface to one of the Irish editions of his works, that Swift had never been known to take a single thought from any writer, ancient or modern. This is not literally true ; but perhaps no writer can easily be found that has borrowed so little, or that in all his excellencies and all his defects has so well maintained his claim to be considered as original.

The company of dean Swift was courted by persons of the first rank in life and literature. He had a rule never to speak more than a minute at a time, and wait for others to take up the conversation. He was peculiarly happy in punning; and used to say, "that none despised that talent but those who were without it." He also greatly excelled in telling a story, but in the latter part of his life used to tell them rather too often. He never dealt in the double entendre, or profaneness upon sacred subjects. He loved to have ladies in the company, because it preserved, he said, the delicacy of conversation.

Some time after Dr. Swift came to the deanery of St. Patrick's, taking his rounds through the liberty of his precinct, he saw a nailer and his wife at work, very early in the morning, and stopping to talk with them, asked how much they earned in a week, what children they had, and how much money to carry on trade? They answered, they had five children, no stock, nor any money to carry on business, nor could they ever have a penny at the week's end, being obliged to pay very dear for iron rods they got from the ironmonger, who employed them to make nails, which he had very cheap from them, and made them pay the highest price for rod-iron, as he gave them credit, and took it out in work. The dean then asked the man how much money would be sufficient to buy in rod-iron and coals, and to sell his nails to another ironmon-  
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ger, and to dispose of some in his own shop. The nailer answered, "thirty shillings would make him very happy." The dean replied, "suppose I should lend you that money, how do you propose to pay it?" The nailer answered, "by a shilling every week." "Then said the dean, I will advance you three guineas, to be paid by a shilling every week; I insist upon your being punctual in the payment, very honest, and very industrious, which is the surest way to thrive." The dean, although he often passed by the shop, seeing the nailer still continue his industry, did not call on him in three years; then asked him, "how his wife and children were? what stock in trade he had by him? and whether he could pay him the money he lent him?" The nailer immediately shewed him his wife and children, who were very clean and decently dressed; told him how much his trade and stock were increased; that he had the money ready to pay him, for which he, his wife, and children, were most thankful, as in duty bound, for their extreme happiness from so generous and good a benefactor; and that, after paying the dean, he had 13 guineas and odd money, and was out of debt." This debt the dean refused; and made the nailer a present of five guineas more for his great industry and œconomy. This was the first cause of the dean's lending small sums to poor industrious tradesmen.

The scholars of Trinity college, Dublin, had in a *gaité du cœur*, invited themselves to supper with the dean one Friday night, on which night, they never have any supper throughout the year, and are therefore flung, as they call it, among their friends. The dean very pleasantly received them; and, to their surprise, supper was brought in before they could imagine it was ready. The table was laid out in the most neat manner, and the dean being seated, several servants brought in the dishes covered. Come gentlemen, says he, uncover; which they did, and found the dishes

contain nothing but ragouts of old books and musty rums; at which, though perhaps not well pleased with their fare, they forced their features into a grin of complaisance, as admiring the dean's wit, not doubting but the second course would make amends for the insipidity of the first, and that Epicurus would follow Burgerfdicius and Keckerman. The second course came in, covered also. They did as before, and found nothing but salt. There, said the dean, there is a feast for Plato. There are *Sales Atticæ* for you; indulge, indulge. This produced another laugh. The second course being removed, in came the third, which consisted of plates covered, in number tallying with the guests; each uncovering his plate, found half-a-crown. Some took them up, and others left them, and thus ended the entertainment: the dean ushered them to the door in the waiter's phrase of, *kindly welcome gentlemen.*

In the reign of king William, to whom Swift was no friend, on account of a neglect he met with from that prince, and therefore had connected himself with the opposite party, it happened, that the king had either chosen, or had actually taken this motto for his state coach in Ireland,

*Non rapui, sed recepi.*

I did not steal, but I received;

alluding to his being called to the throne by the people, and to clear himself from the imputation of violence. This was industriously reported to Swift by one of his emissaries: and what, said he to the dean, do you think the prince of Orange has chosen for his motto on his state coach? *Dutch cheese*, said the Dean, with a reluctant smile, (for he scorned to laugh, and even a smile was extorted.) No, said the gentleman, but, *Non rapui, sed recepi.* Ay ay, says Swift; but there is an old saying and a true one, *the receiver is as bad as the thief.* An embittered reflection, not unworthy of his  
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known misanthropy, and rather superior contempt of the degeneracy of the human species.

A few days before his death, Dr. Swift took an airing in a carriage with a friend, in the Phoenix park. Observing some workmen at a distance, he enquired what they were about, and was informed they were building a magazine. "A magazine! (replied the wit, in his last interval of reason,) "do my dear friend, oblige me with your pencil and tablet;" on which he instantly wrote the following epigram, which is the last flash of his genius on record:

O solid proof of Irish sense!

Here Irish wit is seen;

When nothing's left for a defence,

We build a magazine!

Mr. *Colin Maclaurin*, an eminent mathematician, author of a much approved system of Fluxions, and a treatise of Algebra; was educated at the university of Glasgow, where he applied himself assiduously to the study of mathematics. In 1717 he obtained the mathematical professorship in the marischal college of Aberdeen, and two years afterwards became a fellow of the royal society of London. In 1725 he was chosen to supply the place of Mr. James Gregory, professor of mathematics at Edinburgh. In 1745 having been active in fortifying Edinburgh against the rebels, he was compelled to fly from that place, and took refuge with archbishop Herring, at York. He died the year following.

*James Thomson*, esq. an excellent pastoral poet, was the son of a Scottish clergyman. He was educated at Jedburgh, from whence he removed to the university of Edinburgh, where he was distinguished as a man of genius. Being designed for the church, he performed a probationary exercise by explaining a psalm, when his diction was so poetically splendid, that Mr. Hamilton, the professor of divinity, reproved him for speaking  
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ing language unintelligible to a popular audience. Having now resolved to go to London, the only stage on which a poet can appear, with any hope of advantage, he procured recommendations to several persons of consequence, which he had tied up carefully in his handkerchief; but as he passed along the street, with the gaping curiosity of a new comer, his attention was upon every thing rather than his pocket, and his magazine of credentials was stolen from him. Thomson, however, met with a kind reception from his friends, and in a short time published his *Winter*. He dedicated his spring to the countess of Hertford, whose practice it was to invite every summer some poet into the country, to hear her verses and assist her studies. This honour was one summer conferred on Thomson, who took more delight in carousing with lord Hertford and his friends than assisting her ladyship's poetical operations, and therefore never received another summons.

His poetical pursuits were for a time interrupted by his accompanying on his travels the honourable Charles Talbot, son of the lord chancellor, with whom he visited most of the courts, and capital cities of Europe. Soon after his return, he lost not only his noble friend and fellow traveller, but also lord Talbot himself, and thus became reduced from an easy competency, to a state of precarious dependence; in which he passed the remainder of his life, excepting the two last years of it, when he enjoyed the place of surveyor general of the Leeward islands, procured for him by lord Lyttelton. He died in 1748. An inscription has been placed on a brass tablet over his grave in Richmond church, at the expence of the earl of Buchan. His *Season's* bring before us the whole magnificence of nature, whether pleasing or dreadful, and have neither in style nor imagery ever been equaled. Thomson thinks in a peculiar train, and he thinks always as a man of genius; he looks round on nature with the eye, which nature bestows only

ly on a poet. The reader wonders that he never saw before what Thomson shews him, and that he never yet has felt what Thomson impresses. His tragedy of *Coriolanus* was brought upon the stage after his death, recommended by a prologue, which Quin, who had long lived with Thomson in fond intimacy, spoke in such a manner as shewed him to be, on that occasion, *no actor*. The commencement of this benevolence is very honourable to Quin, who is reported to have delivered Thomson, then known to him only for his genius, from an arrest, by a very considerable present; and its continuance is honourable to both; for friendship is not always the sequel of obligation. Thomson was silent in mingled company, but chearful among select friends, who always spoke with the most eager praise of his social qualities, his warmth and constancy of friendship, and his adherence to his first acquaintance when the advancement of his reputation had left them behind him.

Dr. *Isaac Watts*, a divine and poet of uncommon celebrity, received his education under Mr. Rowe, who kept an excellent seminary in London, and to whom his grateful pupil inscribed an ode, which was inserted in his *Horæ Lyricæ*. In 1696 he went to reside with sir John Hartop as tutor to his son, in which situation he continued four years. He afterwards entered into the family of sir Thomas Abney, and became pastor of the congregation in Berry-Street, St. Mary Axe. In 1728 he received the degree of D. D. from the universities of Edinburgh and Aberdeen. He died in 1741. Dr. Watts was a pious and amiable man; utterly free from all bigotry and sectarian pride. His talents were highly respectable, and he employed them in the most useful way. Few men have left behind such purity of character, or such monuments of laborious piety. He has provided instruction for all ages, from those who are lisping their first lessons, to the enlightened

enlightened readers of Malbranche and Locke ; he has left neither corporeal nor spiritual nature unexamined ; he has taught the art of reasoning, and the science of the stars. His treatise on logic has been received into the universities, and therefore wants no private recommendation. Few books have been perused by me, says Dr. Johnson, with greater pleasure than his *Improvement of the Mind*, of which the radical principles may indeed be found in Locke's *Conduct of the Understanding*, but they are so expanded and ramified by Watts, as to confer upon him the merit of a work in the highest degree useful and pleasing. Whoever has the care of instructing others, may be charged with deficiency in his duty, if this book is not recommended. He excels in devotional poetry ; and his version of the psalms is the best. By his natural temper Dr. Watts was quick of resentment ; but, by his established and habitual practice, he was gentle, modest, and inoffensive. His tenderness appeared in his attention to children, and to the poor.

Dr. *Conyers Middleton*, a famous divine and critic, travelled into Italy, which gave occasion for his well-known letter from Rome, shewing the exact conformity between popery and paganism. His capital performance, is the history of Cicero, perhaps one of the completest pieces of biography ever written.

Lord *Bolingbroke*, who died in 1751, was one of the finest writers that any age has produced. His *Letters on History* are excellent ; but his philosophical works should be read with caution, as they contain many things which clash with the great truths of revelation.

Dr. *Doddridge*, an eminent dissenting minister, and author of many useful publications, was at the head of a flourishing academy in Northamptonshire, about 20 years. His "*Rise and Progress of Religion in the Soul*," and his "*Life of Col. Gardiner*" deserve the serious attention of youth. He died in 1751.

Dr.

Dr. *Butler*, bishop of Durham, who died in 1752, besides a volume of elegant sermons, published a most valuable work, entitled, "The Analogy of Religion, natural and revealed, to the Constitution and Course of Nature." In early life, he was placed by his friends, who were dissenters, in a seminary of that persuasion, where he had for a fellow-pupil the eminent Dr. Watts.

Dr. *Whiston*, a divine and mathematician of uncommon parts and learning, was sir Isaac Newton's deputy and successor, in the Lucasian professorship of mathematics, Cambridge. He published several works explanatory of the Newtonian philosophy, and had the honour of being one of the first, who rendered those principles popular. The work by which he is best known, is "*A Theory of the Earth from its Original to the Consummation of all Things;*" wherein the creation of the world in six days, the universal deluge, and the general conflagration, as laid down in the holy scriptures, are shewn to be perfectly agreeable to reason and philosophy.—Being in conversation with sir Robert Walpole, the discourse happened to turn upon politics, when Whiston affirmed "that there could be no true policy without being bottomed by morality." Sir Robert replied, "he had heard a great deal of those theories in his time; but as men were constituted, it would be impossible to put them into practice." Whiston still continued in his opinion, whilst sir Robert took the contrary side; at last, seeing no end of the argument, Whiston drily replied, "Suppose, sir, you try my advice for once, and then give me your opinion afterwards."—The queen walking with him, in Hampton-court Gardens, observed, "that however right he might be in his notions on some subjects, it would be perhaps better if he kept them to himself."—"Is your Majesty really serious in your advice?" said the old man. "I am really," replied the Queen. "Why



“Why then,” says Whiston, not the least abashed, “had Martin Luther been of your way of thinking, where would your Majesty have been at this time?” He died in 1752.

Dr. *Mead*, author of an ingenious treatise on *Poisons*, and physician to George II. was at the head of his profession for almost half a century. He was a very liberal man, and considered as the Mæcenas of the age. The clergy, and in general all men of learning were welcome to his advice; and his doors were open every morning to the *most indigent*, whom he frequently assisted with *money*. No foreigner of any literature, taste, or even curiosity, ever came to England without being introduced to Dr. Mead. He died in 1754.

*Henry Fielding*, esq. was a writer of a very lively imagination. His genius shines to the greatest advantage in his *Joseph Andrews* and *Tom Jones*, two sterling novels, whose merits are too well known to need an encomium. He possessed an estate of 200l. per annum, and married a lady with 1500l. This fortune, had it been conducted with prudence and œconomy, might have secured to him a state of independence for life, and with the helps it might have derived from the productions of a genius unincumbered with anxieties and perplexity, might have even afforded him an affluent income; but, fond of figure and magnificence, he threw wide open the gates of hospitality, and suffered his whole patrimony to be devoured by hounds, horses, and entertainments. He died at Lisbon in 1754. The last gleam of his wit and humour faintly sparkled in the journal he left behind him of his *Voyage* to that place.

*William Collins*, esq. an unfortunate, but admirable poet, first courted the notice of the public by some verses to a *Lady weeping*, published in the *Gentleman's Magazine*. He came to London a literary adventurer, with many projects in his head, and very little money in

in his pocket. He designed many works; but the frequent calls of immediate necessity broke his schemes, and suffered him to pursue no settled purpose. A man, doubtful of his dinner, or trembling at a creditor, is not much disposed to abstracted meditation, or remote enquiries. He published proposals for a History of the Revival of Learning; but probably not a page of it was ever written. His *Oriental Eclogues*, however, and his *Ode on the Passions*, sufficiently evince his merit as a pastoral and descriptive poet. During the latter part of his life, he languished under mental derangement. He was for some time confined in a house of lunatics, and afterwards retired to the care of his sister in Chichester, his native city, where death in 1756 came to his relief.

Dr. *Hartley*, an eminent physician, who died in 1757, is well known by an excellent work, entitled, *Observations on Man, his Frame, his Duty, and his Expectations*. "You do well to take Hartley with you," said Dr. Johnson to a friend. "The Bible is the best book; but next to it, Dr. Hartley's is one of the best." The late Dr. Reid of Glasgow has also written on the *Intellectual Powers of Man* in a very masterly manner.

*Samual Richardson*, esq. author of the admirable works, *Pamela*, *Clarissa*, and *Charles Grandison*, was placed as an apprentice to a printer, and carried on that business for many years in Salisbury-court, Fleet-Street, with great reputation. Family misfortunes, and sedulous application, so far injured his weak nerves, as to make him, according to the expression of Pope, *tremblingly alive all o'er*, and he died of the effects of a paralytic disorder in 1761.

Dr. *Leland*, a celebrated English dissenting divine, who settled in Dublin, devoted his literary pursuits to the defence of christianity, with the greatest honour to himself, and advantage to the noble cause which he pleaded. His *View of the deistical Writers* is a most valuable work. He died in 1761. Lord

Lord *Anson*, of immortal memory as a circumnavigator, was a cool and steady man, but too fond of play, of which he knew little, and was therefore the constant dupe of sharpers. This made one wittily observe, that "though he had been round the world, he was never in it." His Voyage was drawn up under his own eye, by Mr. Robins, notwithstanding it is published in the name of the chaplain, Mr. Walter. In 1751, he was appointed first lord of the admiralty, and, some years after, commanded the channel fleet, having under him the gallant sir Edward Hawke. The last service in which he was engaged, was in convoying to England her present majesty. He died in 1762.

*William Shenstone*, esq. a very agreeable poet, after quitting the university, retired to his paternal estate, the Leasowes, which he laid out in great taste. Here he devoted himself to rural pleasures and poetry. To embellish the form of Nature is a laudable amusement. This he did with such judgment and fancy, as made his little domain the envy of the great, and the admiration of the skilful; a place to be visited by travellers, and copied by designers. He planted walks in undulating curves, made water run where it would be heard, and stagnate where it would be seen, left intervals where the eye would be pleased, and thickened the plantation where there was something to be concealed. The pleasure of Shenstone, however, was all in his eye. He valued what he valued merely for its looks. Nothing raised his indignation more than to ask if there were any fishes in his water. In time his expences brought clamours about him, which overpowered the lamb's bleat and the linnet's song; and his groves were haunted by beings very different from fawns and fairies. He spent his estate in adorning it, and his death, in 1763, was probably hastened by his anxieties. He was a lamp that spent its oil in blazing. There are some admirable stanzas in his

*Pastoral*

*Pastoral Ballad*; and the *School-mistress* is a pleasing poem.

Allan Ramsay, esq. a celebrated Scottish poet, wrote several excellent songs and much esteemed poems; but his best performance was "*The Gentle Shepherd*," a beautiful pastoral comedy, in which nature is painted to the life.

Dr. Young, an excellent writer both in prose and verse, first published his poem, called "*The Last Day*," which gave great satisfaction, and procured him numerous friends, amongst the rest Addison; for whose "*Spectator*," he wrote several papers. The turn of his mind inclining him towards the church, he entered into orders, was made chaplain to the king, and obtained the living of Welwyn in Hertfordshire. In his satires, entitled "*Love of Fame, the Universal Passion*," the characters are selected with discernment, and drawn with nicety; the illustrations are happy, and the reflections just. Young has the gaiety of Horace without his laxity of numbers, and the morality of Juvenal with greater variation of images. But Swift says, that "the poet should have been either more angry or more merry." In 1739 he married lady Elizabeth Lee, daughter of the earl of Litchfield, and widow of colonel Lee. She died the next year, and this mournful event produced his "*Complaint, or Night Thoughts*," in which he has exhibited a very wide display of original poetry, variegated with deep reflections and striking allusions, a wilderness of thought, in which the fertility of fancy, scatters flowers of every hue and of every odour. "In this work," says Dr. Johnson, "which finely represents the author's melancholy and morality, particular lines are not to be regarded; the power is in the whole, and in the whole there is a magnificence like that ascribed to a Chinese plantation, the magnificence of vast extent and endless diversity." He died in 1765, aged 84. Dr. Young enjoys  
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the credit of an *extempore* epigram on Voltaire, who, when he was in England, ridiculed, in the company of the jealous English poet, Milton's allegory of *Sin* and *Death*.

“ You are so witty, profligate, and *thin*,

“ At once we think thee Milton, death and sin.”

The Rev. *Laurence Sterne*, author of “*Tristram Shandy*,” several excellent “*Sermons*,” and “*A Sentimental Journey*,” was an original and ingenious writer. Of his skill in delineating and supporting his characters, those of his uncle Toby, and of Corporal Trim, afford ample proof. To his power in the pathetic, whoever shall read the stories of *Le Fevre*, *Maria*, the *Monk*, and the *Dead Ass*, must, if he has feelings, be a sufficient testimony. On entering into orders he obtained the living of Sutton through the interest of his uncle, who was a dignitary of York cathedral. He married in 1741; and soon after was made a prebendary of York. The following incident, about this time, very much contributed to establish the reputation of Mr. Sterne's wit. He was sitting in the coffee-house at York, when a stranger came in, who gave much offence to the company, consisting chiefly of gentlemen of the gown, by delcantiug too freely upon religion, and the hypocrisy of the clergy. The young fellow at length addressed himself to Mr. Sterne, asking him, what were his sentiments upon the subject; when, instead of answering him directly, he told the witling, that “ his dog was reckoned one of the most beautiful pointers in the whole country, was very good-natured, but that he had an infernal trick, which destroyed all his good qualities! he never sees a clergyman,” continued Sterne. “ but he immediately flies at him.” — “ How long may he have had that trick, sir?” — “ Ever since he was a puppy.” The young man felt the keenness of the satire, turned upon his heel, and left Sterne to triumph. In 1762, Mr. Sterne went  
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to France, and two Years after to Italy, for the recovery of his health. He died in 1768. Garrick, who was his intimate friend and admirer, wrote the following epitaph for him :

“ Shall pride a heap of sculptur’d marble raise,  
 “ Some worthless unmourn’d titled fool to praise,  
 “ And shall we not by one poor grave-stone learn,  
 “ Where genius, wit, and humour, sleep with Sterne.”

Dr. *Akenfide*, who died in 1770, was a celebrated poet, and physician to the queen. His great work is the *Pleasures of Imagination*, which he published at the age of 23. It is an example of great felicity of genius, and uncommon amplitude of acquisitions, of a young mind stored with images, and much exercised in combining and comparing them. In the general fabrication of his lines, he is, perhaps, superior to any other writer of blank verse. His flow is smooth, and his pauses are musical. When the copy was brought to Mr. Dodsley to be sold for 120l. he carried it to Mr. Pope, who advised him not to make a niggardly offer; for *this was no every-day writer*. Akenfide was one of innumerable instances to prove, that very sublime qualities may spring from very low situations in life; for he had this in common with the high and mighty cardinal Wolsey, that he was the son of a *butcher* at Newcastle upon Tyne.

Dr. *Smollet*, a writer of great celebrity, was bred a surgeon, and was at the siege of Carthage in that capacity. Of this expedition he wrote an acrimonious account, inserted in his novel of *Roderic Random*, which was published in 1749, and brought the author considerable reputation. In the course of a few years appeared *Peregrine Pickle*, *Ferdinand Count Fathom*, *Sir Launcelot Greaves*, and *Humphrey Clinker*; all of them popular works. The *Critical Review* was set on foot by him, and he continued to be the principal manager of it till 1763, when he went abroad for the recovery

*Dr. Goldsmith*, a pleasing poet and historian, travelled over the greater part of the continent, enjoying the scenes of nature, and studying the human passions. He subsisted chiefly by a little skill in music, which made him acceptable to the peasantry; but he often met with a kind reception at the religious houses, where his genius and learning were much esteemed. On his return to London, he rose by degrees into fame, from his poems, plays, and other writings. He might have acquired a competency, had he not been too generous, and otherwise lavish of his money, which constantly kept him poor. He died in 1774. His *Vicar of Wakefield*, *Traveller*, and *Deserted Village*, have great merit, and will always be admired.

*Dr. Hawkesworth*, author of the *Adventurer*, an excellent periodical publication, was bred to the business of a watch-maker. Archbishop Herring was so well pleased with this work, that he conferred on him the degree of L. L. D. He was employed to compile an account of the discoveries made in the South Seas, for which he received the enormous sum of 6000*l*. He then became an East-India director, and died in 1775.

*David Hume*, esq. a profound and sagacious historian, died in 1776. His History of England is the best extant. In his other writings he often loses himself in the mazes of scepticism. The young and unexperienced, therefore, ought not to enter the labyrinth, lest they should not so easily find their way out.

*William Pitt*, the illustrious earl of Chatham, first distinguished himself in parliament, by his powerful eloquence in opposition to sir Robert Walpole. For this the duchess of Marlborough left him in her will, in 1745, 10,000*l*. During his own administration, his eye ran through every department of the state, and therefore, as he was vigilant, all was activity and promptitude. Thus the designs of the enemy were baffled, and his own were executed before they were suspected.

suspected. On the death of George II. a new set of men came into power. The earl of Bute became the confidential friend of the young monarch, and Mr. Pitt, finding neither himself nor his measures acceptable, resigned his place about the end of 1761. When the important question of general warrants was discussed in parliament, his love of rational liberty broke forth in strains which a Tully or a Demosthenes would have listened to with satisfaction. He declared them repugnant to every principle of freedom. Were they tolerated the most innocent could not be secure. "By the British constitution," continued he, "every man's house is his castle: not that it is surrounded by walls and battlements; it may be a straw-built shed; every wind of heaven may whistle round it; all the elements of heaven may enter it; but the king cannot; the king dare not." The earl of Chatham, from the beginning of the American war, set himself vigorously in opposition to the mad measures of an infatuated ministry. His eloquence shook the senate, and echoed through the kingdom. He warned the nation against an unnatural and fruitless contest; and his last effort in public was in speaking on the question of *American Independence*, on the 8th day of April, 1778. In the midst of his speech he was seized with a convulsive fit, and died on the 11th of the same month. His remains lay in state in the Jerusalem chamber, and were afterwards deposited with great solemnity in Westminster-Abbey, where a monument was erected to his memory.

Dr. *Armstrong*, an eminent physician and poet, died in 1779. The *Art of preserving Health* will transmit his name to posterity as one of the first English writers. There is a classical correctness and closeness of style in this poem that are truly admirable, and the subject is raised and adorned by numberless poetical images. Dr. Mackenzie, in his *History of Health*, has this

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beautiful eulogium of it: "To give every charming description and beautiful passage of this poem, one must transcribe the whole. We cannot, however, expect new rules, where the principal design was to raise and warm the heart into a compliance with the solid precepts of the ancients, which he has enforced with great strength and elegance. And, upon the whole, he has convinced us, by his own example, that we are not to blame antiquity for acknowledging,

*"One power of physic, melody and song."*

*David Garrick*, esq. who died in 1779, was a prodigy of theatrical accomplishments; for he could, without the least preparation, transform himself into any character, tragic or comic, and seize instantaneously upon any passion of the human mind. The town often wished to see the celebrated *Quin* and this great actor fairly matched in two characters of equal importance. *The Fair Penitent* presented an opportunity to display their several merits, when it was observed that *Quin* changed colour, and *Garrick* seemed to be embarrassed. The former was too proud to own his feelings on the occasion; but *Garrick* was heard to say, "I believe *Quin* was as much frightened as myself." *Quin* had been strongly patronized by *Frederic Prince of Wales*, and was employed to instruct the royal children in a correct pronunciation. The king's first speech being praised for grace and diction, *Quin* exclaimed, "I taught the boy." With these men of wit and talents *Macklin* was contemporary, whose greatest character was *Shylock*, and his performance of it drew from *Mr. Pope* the following couplet:

This is the Jew  
That *Shakespeare* drew.

Though *Macklin* was very benevolent, he had an extraordinary set of features, which made *Quin* say, "If God writes a legible hand, that fellow's a villain."

Dr.

Dr. *Warburton*, author of the *Divine Legation of Moses*, was a prelate of gigantic abilities. He wrote a vindication of Pope's Essay on Man, in consequence of which a firm friendship was established between them. Mr. Pope introduced him to Ralph Allen, esq. of Prior Park, whose niece he married. The poet left him half of his library, and the property of his works. In 1746 he was called by the society of Lincoln's Inn to be their preacher. He was afterwards made dean of Bristol, and at length bishop of Gloucester. He died in 1779, having survived his intellectual faculties.

*James Harris*, esq. father of lord Malmesbury, a gentleman of uncommon parts and learning, after being appointed commissioner of the admiralty, was made secretary to the queen in 1774. Bishop Lowth says that his *Hermes, or a Philosophical enquiry concerning Universal Grammar*, "is the most beautiful and perfect example of analysis that has been exhibited since the days of Aristotle." He died in 1780.

*Sir William Blackstone*, a learned lawyer, whose name is immortalized by his *Commentaries on the Laws of England*, obtained Mr. Benson's prize-medal, at Oxford, for the best verses on Milton. At the age of 20 he composed a treatise on the elements of architecture, for his own use. The study of the law put an end to these amusing pursuits. As a counsel, however, he made but little progress, having no ready flow of eloquence or graceful delivery. In 1770, he became one of the judges in the court of King's Bench; from whence, shortly after, he removed to the Common Pleas. He died in 1780.

*John Dunning*, lord Ashburton, who died in 1783, was one of the most distinguished pleaders that ever adorned the English bar. There were few causes tried in the court of King's Bench, in which he was not employed as leading counsel either for the plaintiff  
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or defendant. His industry and zeal for the interest of his clients were equal to his abilities. The causes of the poor and oppressed he frequently pleaded *without reward*.

Dr. *Johnson*, who died in 1784, was one of the greatest writers of whom this country has to boast. In his Dictionary and Periodical Publications, he has fixed our language and regulated our morality. Though he was 72 years of age when he began his *Lives of the English Poets*, we perceive no decay of intellect, nor abatement of his wonted vigour. On the contrary it is a treasure of sound criticism, and a model of literary biography. Soon after the appearance of this work, nature gave symptoms of failure, and warned him of his dissolution. This was an event, which he had always looked to with dread. But the last days of this excellent man were sun-shine. His gloomy apprehensions vanished; he saw the ground of his confidence, and departed in strong faith and lively hope. Johnson had a noble independence of mind, and could never bear to stoop to any man however exalted, or to disguise his sentiments to flatter another. His judgment was uncommonly acute and steady, his imagination quick and ready, and his conversation brilliant and instructive.

Dr. *Lowth*, bishop of London, when professor at Oxford, delivered those admirable lectures on the *Sacred Poetry of the Hebrews*, which have immortalized his name. He published likewise an excellent *Grammar of the English Language*, and a *Translation of Isaiah*, the sublimest poetry in the world. He died in 1787.

*John Whitehurst*, F. R. S: an eminent philosophical and mechanical genius, having settled at Derby as a watch-maker, made the clock and chimes of the beautiful tower of All Saint's church, in that city. From his vicinity to the many stupendous phænomena in Derbyshire

Derbyshire, constantly presented to his observation, he was excited to investigate their causes. Being appointed stamper of the money-weights in 1775, he removed to London, where he soon after published his "Enquiry into the Original State and Formation of the Earth," which will remain a monument of his fame to future ages. He died in 1788, at his house in Bolt-court, Fleet-street, where Mr. Ferguson, another celebrated self-taught philosopher had recently lived and died. His death was lamented not only by his numerous friends, but by every lover of science and virtue.

*Thomas Day*, esq. who died in 1789, during the American war, published several poems and pamphlets, reprobating the conduct of Britain in that contest. His fame, however, would not have been secured by the merit of these publications. His *Sandford and Merton*, a book purposely intended for the use of children, does him the greatest credit. This excellent work, as well as Robinson Crusoe, and Bunyan's *Pilgrim's Progress*, ought to be in every young gentleman's library.

Dr. *Adam Smith*, professor of philosophy in the university of Glasgow, died in 1790. His "Theory of Moral Sentiments," and his popular work, entitled "An Enquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations," are masterly performances.

Dr. *Henry*, an eminent Scottish divine and historian, who died in 1790, is well known as the author of an history of Great Britain, on a new plan, which has been highly approved. This abridgment is, in great measure, written on the same plan.

*John Howard*, esq. the philanthropist, visited all Europe, "not to survey the sumptuousness of palaces, or the stateliness of temples," says Mr. Burke; "not to make accurate measurements of the remains of ancient grandeur, nor to form a scale of the curiosity of modern art; nor to collect medals, or collate manuscripts:

scripts:—but to dive into the depths of dungeons; to plunge into the infection of hospitals; to survey the mansions of sorrow and pain; to take the gauge and dimensions of misery, depression and contempt; to remember the forgotten, to attend to the neglected, to visit the forsaken, and compare and collate the distresses of all men in all countries." In 1789 he published an account of the principal lazarettos in Europe, in which he signified his intention of revisiting Russia and Turkey, and of extending his route into the east. A little before he left England, when a friend expressed his concern at parting with him, from an apprehension that they should never meet again, he cheerfully replied, "We shall soon meet in heaven;" and as he rather expected to die of the plague in Egypt, he added, "the way to heaven from Grand Cairo is as near as from London." This good man did actually fall a sacrifice to his humanity; for in visiting a sick patient at Cherson, who had a malignant fever, he caught the infection, and died in the beginning of the year 1790. Mr. Howard's labours have had their effect in this country, by causing his plans to be adopted in most of our prisons.

The Rev. *Thomas Warton*, B. D. a celebrated biographer and poet, in 1785, obtained the appointment of poet-laureat, and at the same time was elected Camden professor of ancient history, in the university of Oxford. His history of English poetry evinces a singular combination of extraordinary talents and attainments. He died in 1790, and was succeeded in the laureatship by Henry James Pye, esq. a descendant of the ever-memorable patriot John Hampden.

Dr. *Price*, an eminent dissenting minister, who died in 1791, is universally known and celebrated for his great abilities in arithmetical calculations. His dissertations on providence, on prayer, on the reason for expecting that virtuous men shall meet after death in  
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a state of happiness, and on the importance of christianity, are replete with religious instruction.

Sir *Joshua Reynolds*, a most eminent painter, and president of the Royal Academy, died in 1791. He chiefly applied himself to portrait paintings, though he sometimes painted historical subjects in a style of uncommon excellence. Dr. Goldsmith says of him,

“He was born to improve us in every part,

“His pencil our faces—his manners our heart.”

He was the first promoter of the literary club, of which Johnson, Burke, and other great men were members.

Sir *Richard Arkwright*, a celebrated manufacturer, was originally a barber at Wirksworth, in Derbyshire. At Warrington he got acquainted with one Kay, a clock-maker, and projected with him a machine for spinning cotton. He afterwards erected works at Crumford, in Derbyshire, and acquired a fortune of near half a million sterling. His system of machinery, to which he gave the name of a “Spinning Jenny,” has given employment to thousands of families; and been productive of great commercial advantage to his country. He was knighted on presenting an address to his majesty, in 1786, as high sheriff of the county of Derby, and died in 1792.

*William Murray, earl of Mansfield*, held the office of lord chief justice of the king's bench, for upwards of 30 years, with a splendor and reputation unrivalled. As a lawyer, he was undeniably the first man of the age. The benevolence of his private life was equal to the excellence of his public character. Of his disinterestedness let it be observed, that he thrice refused the office of lord high chancellor, and never took any grant or emolument from the late king, for himself or any person belonging to him; and when the sufferers by the dreadful riots, in 1780, were to be reimbursed by the public, his lordship, in conjunction with the  
late

late great and good sir George Saville, nobly refused any compensation whatever, though his house in Bloomsbury Square was burnt to the ground, with his fine library, manuscripts, and other invaluable effects. He died in 1793.

*Edward Gibbon*, esq. an elegant historian, was born at Putney, in 1737. At the university of Oxford he contracted the principles of popery, which greatly alarmed his father, who, to recover him, sent him to a protestant minister at Lausanne, in Switzerland, where he did indeed renounce his new creed, but at the same time became a freethinker. His history of the "Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire," is written in a brilliant style, and abounds with proofs of the genius and erudition of its author. It is to be lamented, however, that he deviated from the strict province of an historian, to throw out reflections injurious to the cause of christianity. But he has been sufficiently answered by bishop Watson and others. He died in 1794.

Dr. *Gerard* professor of divinity in the university of Aberdeen, was the author of an excellent *Essay on Genius, Sermons, and Evidences of Christianity*. He died in 1795.

Dr. *Kippis*, an eminent divine and biographer, soon after the commencement of the *Monthly Review*, became a writer in that journal. He was the editor of the new edition of the *Biographia Britannica*, in which capacity he distinguished himself to great advantage. He wrote the *Life of Captain Cook*, in one volume 4to. He was also the writer of the *History of Knowledge, Learning, and Taste in Great Britain*, contained in the New Annual Register. The doctor was a judicious and intelligent writer, and his style is pure and perspicuous. He died in 1795.

Dr. *James Fordyce*, an eloquent divine, who died in 1796, was early settled minister of the parish of Brechin, in Scotland, and afterwards removed to London, where

where he had a great and respectable congregation in Monkwell street. He will long be known as the author of *Sermons to young Men and Women*, and of *Addresses to the Deity*.

Dr. Campbell, principal and professor of divinity in Marischal college, Aberdeen, who died in 1796, was one of the best critics and theological writers of the age. His *Dissertation on Miracles*, his *Translation of the Gospels*, and his *Philosophy of Rhetoric*, will transmit his name to the latest posterity.

Robert Burns, a Scottish poet of extraordinary genius, died in 1796. This pupil of nature was only a ploughman in Ayrshire, and had a common education at the parish school. His works, which were lately published, are highly esteemed. The following beautiful song, in which the wounded and dying of a victorious army are supposed to join, may serve as a specimen :

“ Farewel, thou fair day, thou green earth, and ye skies,  
Now gay with the broad setting sun ;  
Farewel loves and friendships, ye dear tender ties,  
Our race of existence is run !

Thou grim king of terrors, thou life's gloomy foe,  
Go frighten the coward and slave ;  
Go teach them to tremble, fell tyrant ! but know  
No terrors hast thou to the brave !

Thou strik'st the poor peasant,—he sinks in the dark,  
Nor saves e'en the wreck of a name :  
Thou strik'st the young hero,—a glorious mark !  
He falls in the blaze of his fame !

In the field of proud honour,—our swords in our hands,  
Our king and our country to save,  
While victory shines on life's last ebbing sands,  
Oh ! who would not die with the brave !”

Edmund Burke, esq. who died in 1797, was one of the most eloquent men of his age ; perhaps second to



none in any age. He was a very elegant and forcible writer. His essay on the *Sublime and Beautiful* is a composition of much taste. The *Vindication of Natural Society* is a happy imitation of Bolingbroke, and, in fact, it deceived for a time the greatest admirers of that writer.

*Thomas Pennant*, esq. a celebrated naturalist and antiquarian, after travelling over his own country, went to the continent, where he became acquainted with Buffon, Pallas, and Linnæus. He was the author of an "*History of London*," of "*British and Indian Zoology*," and of several "*Tours*." He likewise published a "*History of Quadrupeds*." He died in 1798.

*James Burnett*, lord *Monboddo*, the learned and ingenious author of the *Origin of Language*, died in 1799, at the advanced age of 85. A constitution of body, naturally framed to wear well and last long, was strengthened to his lordship by exercise, guarded by temperance, and by a tenor of mind too firm to be deeply broken in upon by those passions which consume the principles of life. He used to walk much in the open air, and sometimes to ride. It is said, that he even found the use of what he called the *Air Bath*, or the practice of occasionally walking about, for some minutes, naked, in a room filled with fresh and cool air, to be highly salutary.

*William Cowper*, esq. the celebrated author of the *Task*, and other delightful poems, died in 1800. In his works there are many beautiful descriptions of the charms of rural retirement.

" Man immur'd in cities, still retains  
 " His inborn inextinguishable thirst  
 " Of rural scenes, compensating his loss  
 " By supplemental shifts, the best he may.  
 " The most unfurnish'd with the means of life,  
 " And they that never pass their brick wall bounds  
 " To range the fields, and treat their lungs with air,  
 " Yet

" Yet feel the burning instinct : over head  
 " Suspend their crazy boxes, planted thick,  
 " And water'd duly. There the pitcher stands  
 " A fragment, and the spoutless tea-pot there ;  
 " Sad witnesses how close pent man regrets  
 " The country, with what ardour he contrives  
 " A peep at nature when he can no more.  
 " Hail, therefore, patroness of health and ease,  
 " And contemplation, heart consoling joys  
 " And harmless pleasures, in the throng'd abode  
 " Of multitudes unknown ! hail, *rural life* !  
 " Address himself who will to the pursuit  
 " Of honours, or emoluments, or fame ;  
 " I shall not add myself to such a chace,  
 " Thwart his attempts, or envy his success.  
 " Some must be great. Great offices will have  
 " Great talents : and God gives to every man  
 " The virtue, temper, understanding, taste,  
 " That lifts him into life, and lets him fall  
 " Just in the niche he was ordain'd to fill."

Mr. Cowper translated into English blank verse, the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* of Homer, which were published in 2 volumes 4to. in 1791.

The Rev. Dr. Blair, professor of Rhetoric and Belles Letters, in the university of Edinburgh, who died in 1800, as a man of taste and judgment, must be allowed almost the very first rank among his contemporaries. In his *Sermons*, he is often solemnly sublime, more frequently tender and softly pleasing, sometimes meltingly pathetic. Such perfect correctness was never before united with a fire so pure and vivid. Dr. Johnson's opinion of them is contained in the following paragraph of a note to Mr. Strahan: " I have read over Dr. Blair's first sermon with more than approbation ; to say it is good, is to say too little. His doctrine is the best limited, the best expressed : there is the most warmth without fanaticism, the most rational transport."

transport." Mr. Strahan and Mr. Cadell gave one hundred pounds for the first volume. The sale, however, was so rapid and extensive, and the approbation of the public so high, that, to their honour be it recorded, they made Dr. Blair a present, first of one sum, and afterwards of another of 50l. thus voluntarily doubling the stipulated price; and when he prepared another volume, they gave him at once 300l. His *Lectures on Rhetoric* afford the best system of the principles of taste and the laws of literary composition, which has been offered to the world since the age of Quintilian. From about the time of the publication of the second volume of his sermons, he had a pension from her majesty of 200l. annually, which, when he ceased to lecture on rhetoric, was augmented to 300l. The copy-money of his works, received at different times, might amount in all to nearly 4000l.

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## CHAP. VII.

### COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.

**A**FTER the revocation of the edict of Nantz, the persecuted Protestants of France, to the number of almost a million, who had been chiefly employed in the French manufactures, took refuge in England, Holland, and other countries, where they could enjoy the free exercise of their religion; carrying along with them their arts and ingenuity, and even the fruits of their industry, to a very great amount, in gold and silver. They were much caressed in England, where they improved or introduced the manufacture of hats, of silk, and of linen. The importation of those articles from France was soon prohibited, as inconsistent with national interest; the culture of flax was encouraged; raw or unmanufactured silk was imported from

from Italy and China; beaver skins were procured from Hudson's Bay, where settlements had been established, and where all sorts of furs were found in the greatest plenty, and of the most excellent quality. Clock and watch-work was executed, in England, with the utmost elegance and exactness, as well as all other kinds of machinery, cutlery, and jewelry; the cotton manufactory, now so highly perfected, was introduced; and toys of every species were at length finished with so much taste and facility, as to become an article of exportation, even to the European continent, and privately to France itself, the birth-place of fashion, and the nursery of splendid bagatelles.

In the mean time, the colonies in North America enlarged their boundaries, and increased in wealth and population. New England furnished masts and yards for the royal navy, as well as timber for other uses; New York and New Jersey, formerly known by the name of Nova Belgia, conquered from the Dutch, and Pennsylvania, settled a few years before the revolution, produced abundant crops of corn, and a variety of other articles for the European markets, as well as for the supply of the English islands in the West Indies; the tobacco of Virginia and Maryland was become a staple commodity, in high request, and a great source of revenue; and the two Carolinas, by the culture of rice and indigo, and the manufacture of tar, pitch, and turpentine, so necessary to a naval and commercial people, soon became of vast importance.

But the most beneficial trade arose, and still continues to proceed, from the colonies in the West India islands. The rich produce of those islands, which is chiefly intended for exportation, and all carried in the ships of the mother-country, affords employment to a great number of seamen; and as the inhabitants, who do not so much as make their own wearing apparel, or the common implements of husbandry, are supplied  
with

with clothing of all kinds, household furniture, tools, and even the luxuries of the table, from Britain and Ireland, the intercourse is active, and productive of mutual prosperity and happiness.

Of the British commerce, that branch which we enjoyed exclusively, viz. the commerce with our colonies, was long regarded as the most advantageous. Yet since the separation of the American states from Great Britain, the trade, the industry, and manufactures of the latter have continually increased. New markets have opened, the returns from which are more certain and less tedious than those from America. By supplying a great variety of markets, the skill and ingenuity of our artisans have taken a wider range; the productions of their labour have been adapted to the wants, not of rising colonies, but of nations the most wealthy and the most refined; and our commercial system, no longer resting on the artificial basis of monopoly, has been rendered more solid as well as more liberal.

The trade of England to the East Indies constitutes one of the most stupendous political, as well as commercial machines, that is to be met with in history. The trade itself is exclusive, and lodged in a company, which has a temporary monopoly of it, in consideration of money advanced to the government. Besides their settlements on the coast of India, which they enjoy under certain restrictions by act of parliament, the East-India company, through the various internal revolutions which have happened at Indostan, and the ambition or avarice of their servants and officers, have acquired such territorial possessions, as render them the most formidable commercial body that has been known in the world, since the demolition of Carthage. Their revenues are only known, and that but imperfectly, to the directors of the company, who are chosen by the proprietors of the stock. The annual amount of them is supposed to be about four millions sterling.

sterling. The expences of the company in forts, fleets, and armies, for maintaining those acquisitions, are certainly very great; but after these are defrayed, the company not only clear a vast sum, but were able to pay to government four hundred thousand pounds yearly for a certain time, partly by way of indemnification for the expences of the public in protecting them, and partly as a tacit tribute for those possessions that are territorial, and not commercial. This company exports to the East Indies all kinds of woollen manufacture, and all sorts of hard-ware. Their imports consist of gold, diamonds, raw-silks, pepper, tea, and China ware, for home consumption; and of wrought silks, muslins, callicoes, cottons, and all the woven manufactures of India, for exportation to foreign countries.

With Turkey, Italy, Flanders, and Holland, the balance of trade is in favour of England. The goods exported to Poland, chiefly by way of Dantzic, are many, and the duties upon them low. A greater quantity of manufactured tobacco is sent to that country, than to any other.

The acquisitions which the English made upon the coast of Guinea, particularly their settlement at Senegal, opened new sources of commerce with Africa. At present, England sends to that coast, iron, brass, lead-shot, swords, knives, fire-arms, gun-powder, and glass manufactures. The returns are in gold-dust, gum, dying and other drugs, red-wood, and ivory.

During the infancy of commerce with foreign parts, it was judged expedient to grant exclusive charters to particular bodies or corporations of men; hence the East India, South Sea, Hudson's Bay, Turkey, Russia, and Royal African companies; but the trade to Turkey, Russia, and Africa, is now laid open, though the merchant who purposes to trade thither must become a member of the company, be subject to  
their

their laws and regulations, and advance a small sum at admission, for the purposes of supporting consuls, forts, &c.

With regard to the general account of England's foreign balance, the exports have been computed at seven millions sterling, and its imports at five, of which above one million is re-exported: so that if this calculation be true, England gains, annually, three millions sterling in trade; but this is a point upon which the most experienced merchants, and ablest calculators, differ. It must be acknowledged, however, that many exceptions lie to particular estimates. The improvements at home, in iron, silk, linen, cotton, and other manufactures, and the imports from America, must greatly diminish the English imports from abroad. On the other hand, some of the other European nations are making vigorous efforts for rivalling the English manufactures. Yet our foreign trade does not amount to one-sixth part of the inland; the annual produce of the natural products and manufactures of England amounting to above forty-two millions. The gold and silver of England are received from Portugal, Spain, Jamaica, the American colonies, and Africa, but great part of this gold and silver we again export to Holland, and the East Indies; and it is supposed that two thirds of the foreign traffic of England is carried on in the port of London.

Cornwall and Devonshire supply tin and lead, and woollen manufactures are common to almost all the western counties. Dorsetshire makes cordage for the navy, and feeds a great number of sheep. Somersetshire, besides furnishing lead and copper, has large manufactures of bone-lace, stockings, and caps. Bristol is said to employ 2000 maritime vessels of all sizes, coasters, as well as ships employed in foreign voyages. It has many very important manufactures. The glass-bottle and drinking-glass works occupy 15 large houses.

Liverpool,

Liverpool, which at the commencement of last century was only a hamlet of the parish of Walton, is now become, with respect to commerce, the second port in the kingdom. It has an excellent harbour, formed with great labour and expence, ships being admitted into noble wet docks, secured by large flood gates. Its trade to America and Ireland is very considerable. A great number of ships are employed in the Greenland whale-fishery, and in the coasting trade to London. Many good ships are built at Liverpool.

Manufactures of all kinds are carried on in London and its neighbourhood. The gold and silver manufactures of the metropolis, through the encouragement given by the court and the nobility, equal, if they do not exceed, those of any country in Europe. Colchester is famous for its manufactures of bays and sergés, and Norwich for its excellent stuffs, camelots, druggets, and stockings. Birmingham, though no corporation, is one of the largest and most populous towns in England, and carries on an amazing trade in excellent and ingenious hard-ware manufactures. It is here, and in Sheffield, which is famous for cutlery, that the true genius of English art and industry is to be seen; for such are their excellent inventions for fabricating hard wares, that they can afford them for a fourth part of the price at which other nations can furnish the same of an inferior kind.

The northern counties of England carry on a very great trade in the coarser and slighter woollen manufactures; witness those of Halifax, Leeds, Wakefield, and Richmond, and, above all, Manchester, which, by its variety of beautiful cottons, dimities, tickens, checks, and the like stuffs, is become a large and populous place, though only a village, and its highest magistraté a constable. Beautiful porcelain and earthen ware have of late years been manufactured in different places in England, particularly in Worcester-  
shire



tershire and Staffordshire. The English carpets, especially those of Axminster, Wilton, and Kidderminster, much excel in beauty any imported from Turkey, and are extremely durable. Paper, which was formerly imported in vast quantities from France and Holland, is now made in every part of the kingdom. It is highly probable, that in a few years, the inland navigations which are completed in many parts of the country, will make great alterations in its internal state.

After the extinction of the rebellion in 1745, Mr. Pelham discovered the true value of Scotland, as to *commerce*. All the benefits received by that country, for the relief of the people from their feudal tyranny, were effected by that great man. The increase of their shipping, within these 50 years past, has been very considerable. The exports of those ships are composed chiefly of Scotch manufactures, fabricated from the produce of the soil, and the industry of its inhabitants. In exchange they import rice, cotton, sugar and rum, from the West Indies and other countries. The fisheries of Scotland are not confined to their own coasts, for they have a great concern in the whale-fishery, carried on upon the coast of Spitsbergen. The benefits of these and other fisheries are perhaps equalled by manufactures, particularly that of iron at Carron, in Stirlingshire. Their linen manufacture is in a flourishing state. The town of Paisley employs an incredible number of hands, in fabricating a particular kind of flowered and striped lawns, which are a reasonable, and elegant wear. Sugar-houses, glass-works, and paper-mills, are erected every where. The Scotch carpeting makes neat and lasting furniture; and some essays have lately been made, with no inconsiderable degree of success, to carry that branch of manufacture to as great perfection as in any part of Europe. The trade carried on by the Scots with  
England,

England, is chiefly from Leith, and the eastern ports of the nation; but Glasgow was the great emporium for the American commerce, before the commencement of the war with that people. The coal trade to England is well known; and they turned even their stones to account by their contract for paving the streets of London. If the great trade in cattle, which the Scots formerly carried on with the English, is now diminished, it is owing to the best of national causes, that of an increase of home consumption.

It may not be improper here to remark, that the vital principle of all trade, which alone can render it advantageous to individuals, or the world at large, consists in an *equality of barter*. In the commencement of every new colony, we see this position exemplified to the life. One man becomes an husbandman, a second a shepherd, a third a fisherman, a fourth a mechanic, or an importer of foreign commodities, till at length every trade is introduced for which there is a mutual demand. All are alike aware that the commodities in which they deal are of prime necessity; and, therefore, the barter must be upon equal terms. In such a situation of things, trade is an universal blessing. At first, undoubtedly, there must not only exist an equality of barter, but, in a very considerable degree, an equality of property, yet the happiness of the colony by no means depends upon the latter, provided the equality of barter be still adhered to; nor can such equality of property continue long. The great degree of industry in some, and of idleness in others, a variation in the possession of mental or corporeal powers, and a multiplicity of other circumstances, will necessarily, in a short time, produce an inequality in the property of the inhabitants. Such inequality, however, may be highly beneficial to the rising state, by allowing those who possess more ample wealth than the rest, and who have no necessity for personal labour to supply

supply their wants, an opportunity of engaging in new studies and pursuits, which may eventually be an advantage to the society at large. But the moment this inequality of wealth is allowed to produce an inequality of barter, trade will begin to exist no longer as an equal and universal blessing, and inequality of wealth will immediately become a serious evil. Let us suppose that the agriculturist is the wealthy man, and that he is determined to take every advantage which his superior possession of wealth will permit him. His neighbours, being less fortunate than himself, must be supplied with his own article of grain. They cannot exist without it. They become dependent upon him, and, be the price or quantity of wares demanded what it may, it must be acceded to; and the agriculturist immediately accumulates fresh riches, while he impoverishes those around him. This is precisely the situation of Great Britain, at the present period. There is much inequality of property among us, which, as has already been observed, is in itself an advantage rather than an evil, and which actually was so a century ago, when those of large possessions did not devote their superiority of wealth to the purpose of personal trade. At that time the equality of barter was much more universal, from the husbandman to the merchant; and though the nation could not boast of so large a capital embarked, or so extensive a commerce resulting from it, yet from this very circumstance of equality of barter, every rank, excepting the small circle of monopolists, was comparatively richer and happier. At the period now referred to, those who were possessed of large fortunes retired from the commercial world altogether, and lived upon the rental of their accumulated property. They did not interfere with, and consequently did not injure, the equal barter of the markets. But the times are changed. We are now become a nation of traders. Men of all ranks, and of all

all fortunes, choose to employ their property in commercial adventures. They choose also to gain as much as they possibly can, in proportion to the capitals they employ. What must inevitably follow? The weak must yield to the strong. The latter have it in their power to demand a price, which, exorbitant as it may be, the former cannot possibly refuse, because the commodities they will generally be solicitous to vend, as being productive of the greatest profit, are those of prime necessity, and which, by consequence, the former must unquestionably possess for the purpose of actual existence.

With regard to the *military state* of Great Britain, the celebrated Blackstone observes, "that, in a land of liberty, it is extremely dangerous to make a distinct order of the profession of arms. In such no man should take up arms, but with a view to defend the country and its laws. He puts not off the citizen when he enters the camp; but it is because he is a citizen, and would wish to continue so, that he makes himself for a while a soldier." The laws and constitution of these kingdoms formerly knew no such state, as that of a perpetual standing soldiery, bred up to no other profession but that of war; and it was not till the reign of Henry VII. that the kings of England had so much as a guard about their persons. But as the mode of keeping standing armies has prevailed over all Europe for a considerable time, it has also, for many years past, been annually judged necessary by our legislature, for the safety of the kingdom, the defence of the possessions of the crown of Great Britain, and the preservation of the balance of power in Europe, to maintain, even in time of peace, a standing body of troops, under the command of the crown. These however, *ipso facto*, are disbanded at the expiration of every year, unless continued by parliament. In time of war there have been in British pay, natives and foreigners,

reigners, 150,000 men, besides the militia and volunteers.

The *maritime state* is nearly related to the former, though much more agreeable to the principles of our free constitution. The royal navy has ever been the greatest defence and ornament of this country. It is its ancient and natural strength; the floating bulwark of the island, from which, however strong and powerful, no danger can be apprehended to liberty; and accordingly it has been assiduously cultivated, from the earliest ages. The complement of seamen, in time of peace, has usually been about 15,000 men. In time of war, after the commencement of our contest with America, they amounted to above 100,000 men.

There are, perhaps, in England and Wales, *eight millions* of inhabitants; in Scotland, about *two millions*; and in Ireland, *two millions and a half*. In some late debates in the Irish parliament, however, it was asserted, that the number of inhabitants in Ireland amount to *three millions*.

## CHAP. VIII.

### MANNERS.

**D**URING the course of last century, the manners of the English have undergone a considerable change. Their ancient hospitality has much decayed, and many of their favourite diversions are now disused. Those remaining, are operas, dramatic exhibitions, and sometimes masquerades in or near London; but concerts of music, and card and dancing assemblies, are common all over the kingdom. The intense application which Englishmen give to business, their sedentary lives, and luxurious diet, require exercise; they are, therefore, very fond of stag and fox-hunting, and  
of

of horse races. The athletic diversion of cricket is still kept up, and practised by people of the highest rank. Ringing of bells is a species of music, which the English boast of having carried to perfection. Angling, fowling, and coursing, tennis and billiards, bowls, skittles, and quoits, are familiar to them.

One of the peculiar diversions practised by the gentlemen of Scotland is the Goff, which requires an equal degree of art and strength. It is played by a bat and a ball; the latter is smaller and harder than a cricket ball; the bat is of a taper construction, till it terminates in the part that strikes the ball, which is loaded with lead, and faced with horn. An expert player will send the ball an amazing distance at one stroke; each party follows his ball upon an open heath, and he who strikes it with fewest strokes into a hole, wins the game. The diversion of *Hurling* is, perhaps peculiar to the Scots. It is performed upon ice, with large flat stones, often from 20 to 200 pounds weight each, which they hurl from a common stand to a mark at a certain distance; and whoever is nearest the mark is the victor.

Two kinds of diversions, and those highly laudable, are peculiar to the English. These are *rowing* and *sailing*. The latter, if not introduced, was patronized and encouraged by his present majesty's father, the late prince of Wales, and may be considered as a national improvement. The game acts have taken from the common people a great fund of diversion, without answering the purposes of the rich; for the farmers and country people destroy the game in the nets, which they dare not kill with the gun. This monopoly of game, among so free a people as the Britons, has been often attacked, and as often defended.

The history of the stage is a subject of great philosophical curiosity; as it is, in every nation, intimately connected with the history of manners. Even from  
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the mode of playing in different ages, there is something to be gathered beyond the gratification of idle curiosity. Our tragic actors, before the appearance of Garrick, seemed to have had a very imperfect notion of their business. As they could have little opportunity to observe the motions, and still less to hear the discourse of royal personages, especially on great and momentous subjects, or while under the influence of strong passions, they had recourse to imagination; and gave to all the speeches of such exalted characters, and by habit to those of every character, an inarticulate deep-toned monotony, accompanied with a strutting stateliness of gesture, altogether preternatural, which they mistook for majesty. To acquire only the *tread of the stage* was a work of years. But no sooner did Garrick set his foot upon the theatre, than this difficulty vanished. Having a sound judgment, a just taste, and keen sensibility, with a discernment so acute as to enable him to look into the inmost recesses of the heart; a marking countenance; an eye full of lustre; a fine ear; a musical and articulate voice, with uncommon power to modulate it to every tone of passion, he rose at once to the height of his profession, and taught the sympathising spectators, that kings and heroes were men, and spoke, and moved, and felt, like the rest of their species. Other players followed his easy and natural manner, to the great advantage of theatrical representation.

This new style of acting introduced a good taste in writing. Garrick and his disciples displayed their bewitching power of moving the passions, chiefly in the pathetic and awful scenes of Shakespeare and Otway, to which they drew more general admiration. Originals were composed in the same just taste. Among these, we still see with pleasure the *Gamester*, *Douglas*, and *Barbarossa*. The *Elfrida* and *Caractacus* of Malon, and the *Medea* of Glover, are equally pregnant with nature and passion.

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The genius of Garrick, as an actor, was not confined to tragedy. In many parts of comedy he was no less excellent. The comic muse, however, was backward in her favours for a time. We had few new comedies of any merit, till Hoadly produced the *Suspicious Husband*, and Foote those inimitable *sketches of real life*, which were so long the delight of the town, and have justly gained him the name of the English Aristophanes. At length Sheridan, in the *School for Scandal*, and Colman, in the *Jealous Wife* and *Clandestine Marriage*, united the humour of Plautus to the elegance of Terence, and our comedy seemed to be perfected. But a new species of comedy has since been imported from France; in which, as often happens in the great drama of the world, ludicrous and interesting circumstances are blended, and scenes of humour interchanged with those of sentiment. Kelly's *False Delicacy*, and Cumberland's *West Indian*, are precious pieces in this new taste.

Music formed an essential part of the dramatic entertainments of the ancients. In those of the moderns, and especially in ours, it was long only an occasional auxiliary. Our first successful musical piece, the celebrated *Beggar's Opera* of Gay, is said to have been written in *ridicule* of the Italian opera. The author, however, foresaw the pleasure the comic opera would afford to an English audience, independent of that circumstance, and only called in the contrast of character, in order to procure a more ready reception to his new drama. If burlesque had been his chief object, he would have made Macheath and all his gang warble Italian airs. Gay, on the contrary, adapted the words of his songs to *native* tunes. These tunes had all been heard by most of the audience in early life, when the mind was free from care; in the scenes of rural innocence or the walks of gay frolic, when the youthful heart beat high with ambitious hope, or reposed in



the luxury of infantine passion ; while reason was lost in dreams of ineffable delight, and fancy was fed with illusions of unchangeable love. Every tune recalled some agreeable feeling, or former happy state of mind. The effect of the music was accordingly altogether magical ; and it would have been still greater, if the airs had been sung by persons whom the audience could have loved or respected. But as this was not the case, the *Beggar's Opera*, in consequence of its musical enchantment, had a very immoral tendency.—Our musical comedy was afterwards much refined and improved, by the exclusion of profligate manners, and by judiciously intermixing scenes of sentiment with those of humour ; as in *Love in a Village*, the *Duenna*, and some other pieces of a singular kind, which have deservedly met with a favourable reception.

The immortal Handel, having quarrelled with the proprietors of the Opera-House, brought on the English stage a new species of musical drama, to which he gave the name of *Oratorio*, and in which he exerted all his powers of combining harmony, to the delight and astonishment of the whole musical world. Arne attempted to inspire his countrymen with a taste for the *Serious Opera*. With this view, he set to excellent music, and brought upon the English stage a translation of the *Artaxerxes*, of Metastasio, which was received with the most enthusiastic applause.

With regard to genius, the *inhabitants of Great Britain* are not so remarkable for invention, as for improving the inventions of others. The intense application which they give to a favourite study is incredible. It absorbs all their other ideas. This creates the numerous instances of mental absence that are to be found among them.

The amazing increase of territory as well as commercial property, in the East Indies, has introduced into this country a species of people, who have become

come rich without industry, and, by diminishing the value of gold and silver, have created a new system of finances. This has occasioned a spirit of luxury and gaming attended with the most fatal effects, and an emulation among merchants and traders to equal, or surpass, the nobility and the courtiers. The plain frugal manners of men of business, which prevailed so lately as the accession of the present family to the crown, are now disregarded for tasteless extravagance in dress and equipage, and the most expensive amusements and diversions, not only in the capital, but all over the trading towns of this kingdom.

The following lines of Dr. Young, on the subject of professed gamesters, well deserve attention :

- “ See yonder set of thieves who live on spoil,
- “ The *scandal*, and the *ruin* of our isle!
- “ And see, (strange sight!) amid that ruffian band,
- “ A form divine high wave her snowy hand;
- “ That rattles loud a small enchanted box,
- “ Which loud as thunder on the board she knocks.
- “ See her eyes start! cheeks glow! and muscles swell!
- “ Like the mad maid in the *Cumean* cell.
- “ Thus that divine-one her *soft* nights employs!
- “ Thus tunes her soul to tender nuptial joys!
- “ And when the cruel morning calls to bed,
- “ And on the pillow lays her aching head,
- “ With the dear images her dreams are crown’d,
- “ The *die* spins lovely, or the *cards* go round.
- “ Gaming, dear ladies, is the worst of ills;
- “ With ceaseless storms the blacken’d soul it fills;
- “ Inveighs at heaven, neglects the ties of blood,
- “ Destroys the power, and will of doing good;
- “ Kills health, pawns honour, plunges in disgrace,
- “ And, what is still more dreadful—spoils your face.\*
- With regard to *dress*, the people of Great Britain  
love

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\* Young's Love of Fame.

love rather to be neat than fine in their apparel ; and the appearance of an artisan or manufacturer in holiday times is commonly an indication of his industry and morals. Gentlemen and ladies, of rank and fortune, appear on high occasions, in cloth of gold and silver, the richest brocades, satins, silks, and velvets, both flowered and plain, all which are now manufactured at home. The quantities of jewels that appear on public occasions are incredible, especially since the vast acquisitions of the English in the East Indies. The same nobility, and persons of distinction, on ordinary occasions, dress like creditable citizens, that is neat, clean, and plain, in the finest cloth and the best of linen.

The *Highlanders* of Scotland wear a *plaid*, composed of an woollen stuff, sometimes very fine, called *tartan*. This stuff is of various colours, forming stripes which cross each other at right angles ; and the natives value themselves upon the judicious arrangement, or what they call sets, of those stripes and colours, which, where skilfully managed, produce a pleasing effect to the eye. Above the shirt, the Highlander wears a waistcoat of the same composition with the plaid, which commonly consists of 12 yards in width, and which they throw over the shoulder into very near the form of a Roman *toga*, as represented in ancient statues. Sometimes it is fastened round the middle with a leather belt, so that part of the plaid hangs down before and behind like a petticoat, and supplies the want of breeches. This they call being dressed in a phelig, which the Lowlanders call a kilt, and which is, probably, the same word as Celt. Sometimes they wear a kind of petticoat of the same variegated stuff, buckled round the waist, and this they term the *philebeg*, which seems to be of Melesian extraction. Their stockings are likewise of tartan, tied below the knee with tartan garters, formed into tassels. The poorer people wear upon their feet brogues, made of undressed leather.

For

For their heads they use a blue flat cap, called a bonnet, of a particular woollen manufacture. From the belt of the philebeg hung generally their knives, and a dagger, which they called a *dirk*, and an iron pistol, sometimes of fine workmanship, and curiously inlaid with silver. A large leathern purse, richly adorned with silver, hanging before them, was always part of a Highland chieftain's dress.

The attachment of the Highlanders to this dress rendered it a bond of union, which often proved dangerous to government. Many efforts were made by the legislature, after the rebellion in 1715, to disarm, and oblige them to conform to the Low-country dresses. The disarming scheme was the most successful; for when the rebellion in 1745 broke out, the common people had scarcely any other arms, than those which they took from the king's troops. Their overthrow at Culloden rendered it no difficult matter for the legislature to force them into a total change of their dress. Its conveniency, however, for the purposes of the field, is so great, that the Highland regiments still retain it. Even the common people have of late resumed the use of it; and many of the Highland gentlemen wear it in the summer time.

The woman's plaid has been but lately disused in Scotland by the ladies, who wore it in a graceful manner, the drapery falling towards the feet in large folds. A curious *virtuoso* may find a strong resemblance between the plaids, and the variegated and fimbriated draperies of the ancients, especially the Tuscans, who were probably of Celtic original.

## CHAP. IX.

## INCIDENTS AND CURIOUS PARTICULARS.

**I**N 1693, the bank of England was established. During the same year, the first public lottery was drawn.

In 1707, the first British parliament met.

In 1727, inoculation was first tried on criminals with success.

In 1740, there was a very severe frost, which continued nine weeks. The river Thames was covered with such a crust of ice, that a multitude of people dwelt upon it in tents, and many booths were erected for the entertainment of the populace. The price of all sorts of provisions was so uncommonly high, that several families must have perished by cold and hunger, had not those of opulent fortunes been inspired with a remarkable spirit of compassion and humanity.

In 1744, commodore Anson returned from his voyage of 3 years and 9 months, in which he had surrounded the terraqueous globe. After having sustained incredible hardships and misery, from the shattered condition of the ships, and the scorbutic disorder, he fell in with, and took the rich Spanish ship, which sailed annually between Acapulco in Mexico, and Manilla, one of the Philippine islands; in which were treasure and effects to the value of 313,000*l*. With this rich prize, and the produce of some other small vessels he had captured, together with the plunder of the town of Plata, which he had taken and burnt, the whole of which amounted to nearly the foregoing sum, the commodore proceeded to Canton in China, and from thence, by the cape of Good Hope, reached England in safety.

In 1750, the month of January, and the beginning of February were distinguished, the first by a very remarkable aurora borealis, appearing to the north-east of a deep and dusky red colour, like the reflection of  
some

some great fire ; and the latter was ushered in by terrible peals of thunder, flashes of lightning, and such a tempest of wind, hail, and rain, as overwhelmed with fear and consternation the inhabitants of Bristol, where it chiefly raged. On the 8th day of the same month, the people of London were still more dreadfully alarmed by the shock of an earthquake ; and on the very same day of the next month, they were again affrighted by a second shock, more violent than the first, and still more alarming. As these two shocks appeared to be periodical, a fanatical soldier prophesied that another concussion would happen on the same day of April, and totally destroy the cities of London and Westminster. This prediction spread such an universal alarm, that on the evening of the 8th of April, the fields about the metropolis were filled with an incredible number of people of all ranks, who waited in the most fearful suspense, until morning and the return of day disproved the truth of the dreaded prophecy.

A great number of felons being confined about this time in Newgate, the air acquired such a pestilential degree of putrefaction, that when they were brought to trial at the bar of the Old Bailey, in May, it produced among the audience a fever, which infected and proved fatal to the lord mayor of London, to one alderman, two of the judges, several lawyers, the greatest part of the jury, and a considerable number of the spectators.

In 1756, the *suba* or viceroy of Bengal, having got possession of the English factory at Cassimbuzar, marched to Calcutta at the head of a numerous army, and immediately invested it. As the place was in no posture of defence, the governor, with some of the principal persons, abandoned the fort, and took refuge on board a ship in the river. Mr. Holwell, the second in command, with the assistance of a few gallant officers, defended it for a time, till being overpowered by  
numbers,

numbers, he was obliged to submit. The viceroy promised, on the word of a soldier, that no injury should be done to him or his garrison. But notwithstanding this, they were all driven, to the number of 146 persons of both sexes, into a place called the black-hole prison, a cube of 18 feet, in which were only 2 windows, and those open to quarters from which they could not expect the least refreshing air. As it is impossible to conceive or describe the situation of these unhappy persons, thus cooped up in so confined a place; suffice it to say, that after experiencing all the inconveniencies that must naturally arise from a difficulty of respiration, the most intolerable thirst, and the horror of seeing their friends drop every moment around them; when the morning returned, no more than 23 survived. The inhuman ruffians, who guarded the miserable victims, derived entertainment from their agonies; and the more savage Suba would not have spared the lives of the few survivors, but from the hopes of discovering treasures, which only existed in his own imagination.

In 1765, general warrants, except in cases of high treason, were declared illegal.

In 1770, the dock-yard at Portsmouth was set on fire in several places. The damage, by the destruction of naval stores and warehouses, amounted to 150,000*l*. A reward of 1000*l*. was offered for detecting the incendiaries, but without effect.

In 1772, the king's two brothers, the dukes of Gloucester and Cumberland, having married privately; the former the countess-dowager of Waldegrave, the latter a widow lady of the name of Horton, daughter of lord Irnham; and it being necessary, in all hereditary monarchies, to keep the succession as clear and distinct as possible, a bill was brought into parliament for that purpose. By this bill it was enacted, that all the descendants of his late majesty, except the issue of such princesses as have married, or may marry into  
foreign

foreign families, shall be incapable of contracting marriage without the previous consent of the late king, or his successors on the throne, signified under the great seal, and declared in council; and that every such marriage, without such consent, shall be null and void; limiting the prohibition, however, to 25 years of age, after which, upon giving one year's notice of their intention to the privy-council, they may marry without the consent of the crown, if parliament does not, in the mean time, disapprove of the contract; and further, all persons who shall knowingly presume to solemnize, or assist at the celebration of such illicit marriage, shall be liable to all the pains and penalties of the statute of *proemunire*. A protest, signed by a great number of peers, was entered into the journals of the house of lords against this bill.

In the course of this session, likewise, a material alteration was made in the criminal law of the kingdom. Formerly, when a felon refused to plead, he was stretched out upon his back at full length, and a heavy weight laid upon his breast, which was gradually, though slowly, increased till he expired; during which operation he was fed with nothing but a crust of bread, and some dirty water. By a bill, which was now passed, this barbarous practice was abolished, and all felons refusing to plead are adjudged to be guilty of the crimes laid to their charge.

In 1773, captain Phipps, afterwards lord Mulgrave, in the *Sea-horse*, and captain Lutwidge in the *Carcase*, were sent out by the government, in order to discover whether there was a possibility of discovering either a north-east or north-west passage to the East Indies; but after sailing to the latitude of 81 degrees, 39 minutes, they were prevented by the mountains, or rather islands of ice they met with, from proceeding any farther, and they therefore returned home without being able to accomplish their purpose.



The reign of George III. indeed, seems to have been particularly distinguished by the spirit of adventure. Four different voyages have been performed round the world, for the similar purpose of making discoveries in the South-sea: the first, by commodore Byron; the second, by captain Wallis; the third, by captain Carteret; and the fourth, by captain Cook; and none of them have entirely failed in the object of their destination; each of the circumnavigators having either found out some new countries, or something new in the manners of those that were already known. Captain Cook, indeed, performed a second voyage round the world; and was actually engaged in sailing round it a third time, when, to the infinite regret of all lovers of real merit, he was cut off in a scuffle with the inhabitants of one of the new-discovered islands in South-sea, called O-whi-hee.

In 1775, hostilities commenced in the American colonies.

In 1777, much confusion, apprehension, and suspicion, were excited, by the machinery of a wretched enthusiast and incendiary, known by the appellation of *John the Painter*, but whose real name was James Aitken. This person, who was a man of the most abandoned character, set fire to the rope-house in the dock-yard of Portsmouth, and to a warehouse and some dwelling-houses in Quay-lane, Bristol. And it appeared by his own confession, that he intended to have destroyed all the dock-yards in the kingdom, in order to impede the naval preparations, and in expectation of being liberally rewarded by the American states. But before he could carry any more of his infernal designs into execution, he was seized, tried, condemned, executed, and hung in chains.

In 1778, a bold adventurer, named Paul Jones, bearing a commission from the American congress, committed several depredations on the coast of Great Britain:

Britain: he first landed at Whitehaven, where he burnt a ship in the harbour, and even attempted to set fire to the town; he afterwards landed in Scotland, his native country, and plundered the house of the earl of Selkirk, whose plate he sold by auction in Paris.

In 1780, there were dreadful riots in London. During the same year, a terrible hurricane happened in the West Indies, which did considerable damage to the Squadron there, under commodore Hotham; three ships were lost, and the rest were much injured. The storm at land destroyed nearly all the houses and plantations at Barbadoes, Antigua, St. Lucia, and St. Christophers. The distress of the inhabitants of these islands is scarcely to be described, and was thought worthy of the attention of parliament, who voted them liberal relief.

In 1784, there was a sacred concert in commemoration of Handel, under the patronage of their majesties, and several of the nobility. All the eminent performers in London, vocal and instrumental, were formed into one band; and furnished a musical entertainment sublime and pleasing beyond conception. Five concerts were performed on five different days, the first on the 26th of May, in Westminster-abbey, and at the Pantheon. The total sum collected during that period, amounted to 11,831l. at one guinea for each ticket, and half-a-guinea for those at the rehearsals. Great part of the money collected was given to St. George's hospital, and the Westminster infirmary, &c. and part to institute a royal society of musicians, who are to provide for poor, sick, and decayed performers.

The first day of the year 1786 is rendered memorable by the loss of the *Halfewell East Indiaman*, captain Pierce, on the rocks of Purbeck, near the isle of Portland, as she was outward bound; when the captain, his two daughters, two nieces, and two other beautiful young ladies, lost their lives. About 120  
men.

men got on shore, but from the darkness of the morning, and surges of the sea, many of them were dashed to pieces or drowned. Among the number saved, were 18 officers, 30 seamen, and 25 soldiers.

The death of that great warrior and politician, Frederick III. king of Prussia, happened on the 17th of August, in the 75th year of his age. He was succeeded by his nephew, Frederick IV.

In 1788, died at Rome, aged 67 years, prince Charles Edward Stuart, more commonly known by the name of the pretender to the crown of these realms. His funeral obsequies were celebrated with great pomp in the cathedral of Frescati, of which see, his brother, cardinal York, was bishop. He left, however, a natural daughter, whom, by his pretended royal power, he created duchess of Albany, and to whom he bequeathed all his property in the French funds, which was very considerable.

In 1789, during the month of January, and part of February, the frost was so intense, that the river Thames became a stage for every kind of diversion. Bear-baiting, festivals, booths, turnabouts, and all the various amusements of Bartholomew fair, were exhibited upon the ice, from Putney-bridge to Rotherhithe. —The same year, there was a grand revolution in France.

In 1790, two memorable events happened at sea, which for their singularity and importance are worthy to be recorded. The first that attracted the public notice, was a mutiny on board the *Bounty*, a ship which sailed from England, in the autumn of 1787, on a voyage to the society islands, for bread-fruit trees, in order to cultivate them in our West India settlements. Having completed the object of her voyage, the *Bounty* quitted Otaheite, on the 11th of April, 1789, and was pursuing her course across the Pacific ocean towards the Moluccas, when, on the 28th, at day-break,

day-break, captain Bligh, who commanded the *Bounty*, was seized in his cabin by a part of the crew, and with 18 others, mostly officers, put into the long-boat, with a very scanty portion of provisions and water. In hopes of making some addition to their stock, those in the boat put back to one of the Friendly Islands; but being driven from thence with the loss of one man killed, and several wounded, they made their way for Timor, a Dutch settlement, which they reached on the 12th of June, after having been 46 days in a crazy, open boat, without any awning to defend them from the rain, which almost incessantly fell for 40 days. A heavy sea, and squally weather, for a great part of their course, had augmented their misery. Having received from the governor of Timor every necessary succour, they came to Batavia, from whence captain Bligh, and a few others (the rest preparing to follow) arrived in England, in March, 1790. The mutineers in the ship, who were 25 in number, headed by one Christian Fletcher, the master's mate, stood away, as they said, for Otaheite.

The other memorable occurrence was the disaster that befel his majesty's ship *Guardian*, lieutenant Riou commander, bound with stores and provisions for the settlement at Port Jackson, in New South Wales. Pursuing their way from the Cape of Good Hope, they fell in with an island, or mountain of ice, twice as high as the mast-head; in which getting entangled, the ship received so much damage, that the greatest part of the crew took to the boats; one of which, after encountering the greatest hardships, was taken by a French ship, and landed at the Cape of Good Hope. The *Guardian* continued for some days in the same state, as when the boats departed, at the mercy of the winds and waves, without a rudder, and every instant in danger of being swallowed up in the vast abyss: but by the wonderful exertions of lieutenant Riou (who had

had before determined to share her fate) and the small part of the crew that had bravely remained with him, she was providentially enabled to make her way to the Cape of Good Hope.

In 1791, there was a dreadful insurrection of negroes in St. Domingo.

In 1792, the French convention decreed the abolition of royalty, and the formation of a republic on the principles of liberty and equality.

In 1793, the king of France was tried, and executed on the 21st of January. On the 16th of October, the queen shared the same fate.—About this time, a yellow fever, similar to a plague, broke out at Philadelphia, attended with most dreadful consequences.

In 1794, John Horne Tooke, esq. and others were committed to the tower on a charge of high treason. They were afterwards tried and acquitted.—On the 24th of July, a dreadful fire broke out near Ratcliffe-crofs, by which 600 houses were consumed. The loss was computed at 1,000,000l. sterling.

In 1795, on the 8th of April, the prince of Wales was married to the princess Caroline of Brunswick.—On the 17th of September, Covent-garden church, built by Inigo Jones, was destroyed by fire.

In 1796, on the 7th of January, the princess of Wales was delivered of a daughter, who was christened Charlotta Augusta.—On the 17th of August, general Washington resigned the presidency of America, and was succeeded by Mr. Adams.—On the 5th of December, a loan of 18,000,000l. was raised for government by voluntary subscription, in 15 hours and 20 minutes.

In 1797, the bank of England was ordered by the privy council to stop the payment of cash, on account of the great run upon it. The bank issued small notes of 1l. and 2l. each; also Spanish dollars stamped at 4s. 9d. each.

On

On the 18th of May, the princess royal of England was married to the hereditary prince of Wirtemberg.

On the 19th of December, when their majesties, accompanied by the peers and commons, went in procession to St. Paul's cathedral, to return thanks for the success of the British arms at sea, under lords Howe, St. Vincent, and Duncan, the seamen and marines exhibited *two* colours taken from the French, *three* from the Spaniards, and *four* from the Dutch. They were carried on military waggons, and each set followed by a party of lieutenants on foot, who had served in the different engagements, in which they had been won. The 20 carriages of state employed 122 horses.

In 1798, the French general Humbert, who landed in Ireland with a considerable number of men, surrendered to lord Cornwallis, on the 8th of September. Not long after, the French national brig *Anacreon*, having on board general Rey, and the notorious James Napper Tandy, *Chéf de Brigade*, landed on the island of Rutland. The crew were chiefly Irishmen, and solicited information concerning the French army landed at Killala. Nothing could equal their dejection when they were told, not only that the whole French force had been destroyed or captured, but that they had been joined by comparatively very few of their Irish rebel friends. The *Anacreon* was laden with many stands of arms to supply those who should join the French army. They issued the following proclamation, headed by an harp surmounted by the cap of liberty, and bearing the motto *Erin go Bragh: Liberty or Death*. "United Irishmen, the soldiers of the *Great Nation* have landed on your coast, well supplied with arms and ammunition of all kinds; with artillery worked by men who have spread terror amongst the ranks of the best troops in Europe, headed by the French officers. They come to break your  
fettters

fetters and restore you to the blessings of liberty. *James Napper Tandy* is at their head. He has sworn to lead them on to victory or to die."

On the 10th of October, at a court of common council, the lord mayor read the following letter, which he had received from Admiral Nelson: "My Lord, having the honour of being a freeman of the city of London, I take the liberty of sending to your lordship the sword of the commanding French admiral, Monsieur Blaquet, who survived after the battle of the 1st of August last, off the Nile; and request that the city of London will honour me by the acceptance of it, as a remembrance that "*Britannia still rules the waves.*" A tumult of applause immediately followed the reading of the letter, and the sword was ordered to be placed among the *City Regalia*.

In 1799, on the 8th of February, a singular phenomenon occurred in the Isle of Wight. A large tract of land, containing 130 acres, with a dwelling house and other edifices upon it, was suddenly separated from the adjoining ground, leaving in its place a stupendous gulph or chasm, which the water instantly filled up.

On the 10th of August, above 5000 of the volunteers of the county of Kent, were reviewed by the king, queen, and royal family, at lord Romney's seat in the Moat-Park, Maidstone. After the review, marquees were erected on the lawn for their majesties and the nobility to dine, and tables in view of the royal tents were laid out for the volunteers. The entertainment, to which 6500 persons sat down, consisted of every delicacy of the season. To give some idea of the dinner provided by his lordship, there were 60 lambs, 200 dishes of roasted beef, 700 fowls, 220 meat pies, 300 hams, 250 tongues, 220 fruit pies, 220 dishes of boiled beef, and 220 joints of roasted veal. Seven pipes of port were bottled off, and 16 butts of ale, and as much small

small beer; were placed in large vessels, to supply the company.

Towards the close of the year, the heroic troops, embarked on the ill-concerted expedition to Holland, were under the necessity of resigning their dear bought laurels of victory. On the 16th of October, the duke of York agreed with general Brune for an armistice of 14 days; and about the end of November, the English and Russian armies and fleets evacuated Helder and the Texel, leaving the forts and arsenals in the condition in which they were taken by sir Ralph Abercromby and admiral Mitchell.

In 1800, on the 15th of April, a circumstance occurred in Hyde Park, which caused considerable sensation in London. His majesty was attending the field exercises of the grenadier battalion of the guards, when, during one of the volleys, a ball cartridge was fired from the musquet of one of the soldiers, which wounded a gentleman, who stood only *twenty-three feet* from the king. In the evening a most alarming event took place at the Theatre Royal, Drury-lane, which, coupled with what happened in the morning, gave rise to very serious apprehensions in the minds of all loyal subjects. At the moment when his majesty entered the box, a man in the pit, near the orchestra, suddenly stood up and discharged a pistol at the *royal person*. Being seized, and examined by Mr. Sheridan, he said his name was James Hadfield, and that he had been in the army. At this time the prince of Wales and duke of York entered the room, when he immediately turned to the duke and said—"God bless your royal highness. You are a good fellow. I have served with your highness, and (pointing to a deep cut over his eye, and another long scar on his cheek) said, I got these, and more than these, in fighting by your side. At Linnelles, I was left three hours among the dead in a ditch, and was taken prisoner by the French. I had my arm  
broken



broken by a shot, and eight sabre wounds in my head; but I recovered, and here I am." He was afterwards tried in the court of king's-bench, when the jury brought in a verdict of *not guilty*, from the impression that he laboured under the influence of mental derangement, at the time he committed the act. One of the captains of the 15th light dragoons was examined on the trial, who said the prisoner had been considered as insane, but that otherwise he was a brave and good man, and much beloved by the regiment.

On the 9th of November, a most tremendous wind arose about eleven o'clock in London, and for 100 miles round, which did incalculable damage to houses, and occasioned floods in the country, by which much property was destroyed. In Kensington gardens and St. James's park many trees were blown down, or broken off about 6 feet from the ground. The lead upon the chapel, and other apartments, of Chelsea hospital, was rolled up by the violence of the wind, like a piece of cloth. The newly-erected manufactory for paper from straw, in Bermondsey-street, was overset in a moment. At Portsmouth, almost the whole fleet started their anchors, and many were obliged to run out to sea. At Brighton, Deal, Ramsgate, Harwich, and other places on the coast, the dreadful effects of the storm were likewise felt.

In 1801, on the 1st of January, the union of Great Britain and Ireland having commenced, the king held a privy council, when all the members of parliament in London took the new oaths. His majesty, by his royal proclamation, directed that his titles should be expressed in the Latin tongue by these words:—"GEORGIUS. TERTIUS, Dei Gratiâ, Britanniarum Rex, Fidei Defensor." And in the English tongue by these words:—"GEORGE the THIRD, by the grace of God, of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, King, Defender of the Faith."

On

On the 14th, an order of council was issued for the seizure of all vessels belonging to Russia, Sweden, and Denmark; and nearly 100 ships of the two latter nations were immediately detained in the river Thames, and the Downs, at Dover, Portsmouth, Plymouth, and Yarmouth.

On the 12th of March, the Emperor Paul, of Russia, died suddenly at Petersburg. As he had rendered himself unpopular by his impolitic measures, it is generally thought that he was poisoned.

On the 14th, Mr. Pitt resigned the seals of his office, as prime minister to his Majesty, who delivered them to Mr. Addington, speaker of the House of Commons, whom sir John Mitford succeeded. The retirement of Mr. Pitt and Mr. Dundas, lords Grenville, Spencer, Camden, &c. from office, is said to have originated in the question for the emancipation of the catholics. The lord lieutenant of Ireland was authorised by them to pledge himself to the catholic committee in Dublin, that the test law should be repealed; by which promise he induced their concurrence to the legislative union, and was thereby enabled to carry the project. Mr. Pitt, with those who had sanctioned the stipulation, regarded themselves pledged to the measure, and wished to introduce the subject into the speech from the throne on the opening of the imperial parliament; but his majesty, considering the concession to be inconsistent with his coronation oath, resisted the advice of the majority of his ministers, and made it necessary that they should retire.

On the 18th, the Invincible man of war, of 74 guns, was lost near Yarmouth, from whence she had set sail for the *Sound*, to join the fleet under the command of admiral sir Hyde Parker. About 195 of the crew were saved by means of the launch; but *four hundred* unfortunately found a watery grave. Captain Rennie, after the ship had sunk, attempted to swim to the launch, and

and after a severe exertion got within reach of the oars, when, exhausted with fatigue, and unable to make any farther effort, he calmly resigned himself to his fate. Lifting up his hands, as if to implore the blessing of heaven, and immediately after placing them upon his face, he went directly down without a struggle. This afflicting disaster is attributed solely to the ignorance of the pilot, who was among the numerous sufferers, and, in common charity, death must now be considered as having expiated all his faults.

On the 21st of the same month, a bloody battle was fought in Egypt, near Alexandria, between the British and French troops. "The contest," says general Hutchinson, "was unusually obstinate; the enemy were twice repulsed, and their cavalry were repeatedly mixed with our infantry. They at length retired, leaving 3000 men dead and wounded on the field. We also have suffered considerably. Few more severe actions have ever been fought, considering the number engaged on both sides. We have sustained an irreparable loss in the person of our never-sufficiently-to-be-lamented commander in chief, sir Ralph Abercrombie, who was mortally wounded in the action and died on the 28th of March. Were it permitted for a soldier to regret any one who has fallen in the service of his country, I might be excused for lamenting him more than any other person; but it is some consolation to those who tenderly loved him, that as his life was honourable, so was his death glorious. His memory will be recorded in the annals of his country,—will be sacred to every British soldier, and embalmed in the recollection of a grateful posterity."

On the 2nd of April, there was a dreadful naval engagement off Copenhagen, under lord Nelson, when the Danes were defeated, and a death-blow given to the northern confederacy.

On the 6th of May, a deputation of the principal  
booksellers

booksellers waited on Mr. Fox with a tender of 5000 guineas, for the copy-right of his intended publication of the "*History of the reign of the House of Stuart.*"

On the 19th of June, the first stone of the Royal Military Asylum was laid at Chelsea, in the presence of the duke of York, attended by the secretary at war, lord Harrington, general Delancey, &c. when several coins and medals, commemorating our naval and military victories, were placed under it.

About the same time, a celebrated physician discovered a specific in the scarlet fever, viz. 25 drops of tincture of foxglove, given every 3 hours, day and night.

During this month, a convention was signed at Petersburg, as the basis of a renewed pacification between Great Britain and the northern powers. The immediate cause of hostilities was a difference on the right of searching neutral vessels, by belligerent flags, so as to prevent the enemy on either side from being supplied by such neutral ships with warlike stores. The death of the emperor Paul, however, and the moderation and wisdom of his successor, produced a termination of hostilities, and the British cabinet gained every essential point for which they contended.

On the 18th of July, official accounts were received at Constantinople of the surrender of Cairo to the British and Turkish troops. The duty of the garrison was divided between the Turks and the English, and after leaving a force competent to this service, the grand vizier, and general Hutchinson, (who had succeeded sir Ralph Abercrombie as commander in chief,) advanced with 36,000 men against Alexandria.

On the 4th of August, an attack, conducted by lord Nelson, was made on the gun-boats, &c. in the harbour of Boulogne, intended for an invasion of England.

Early in this month, the three following statements of the national debt appeared in the public prints. Mr. Morgan fixed it at 506,136,972l. and Mr. Tier-  
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ny, at 490,009,846l. The chancellor of the exchequer's statement, which received the fiat of parliament amounted to 426,207,865l.

On the 27th of August, the town and forts of Alexandria surrendered to the brave general Hutchinson. The French general Menou having offered to capitulate. The co-operation of sir Sidney Smith's naval force assisted him materially, by the destruction of the French gun-boats, and some batteries between lake Marcotis and the shore. The important object of the expedition to Egypt being thus accomplished, the conquest of that country was eminently glorious to the British arms.

On the 10th of October, general Lauriston, aid-de-camp to Bonaparte, first consul of France, arrived in London, with the ratification of the preliminaries of peace. M. Otto, plenipotentiary for the French republic, immediately waited on lord Hawkesbury with him, and at three o'clock the park and tower guns announced the exchange of the ratification. On general Lauriston's passing through town to M. Otto's residence, his carriage was followed by a numerous concourse of people, who afterwards took the horses from his carriage, and drew it down Bond-street, St. James's-street, and to Downing-street, expressing on the occasion the most tumultuous joy. At night there was a very universal, and in many places, a splendid illumination. The streets were crowded with people of all ranks till near ten o'clock, when a dreadful storm of thunder and rain compelled them reluctantly to retire. The lightning was so vivid, that the whole atmosphere was, as it were, in a blaze; which, added to the splendor of the illumination, had a grand effect.

By this preliminary treaty, Great Britain retains the island of Ceylon in the East Indies, and Trinidad in the West, restoring all the other French, Spanish, and Dutch possessions, but with the stipulation that the

Cape

Bay of Good Hope is to remain a free port. Malta is to be evacuated both by the French and English, and restored to the Porte. Naples and Rome are also to be evacuated, and no French troops are to remain in the Roman territories.

Not long after, marquis Cornwallis was appointed to be plenipotentiary at the congress at Amiens, in France, for the signature of the *definitive treaty*. Anthony Merry esq. was also appointed to execute the office of his majesty's secretary at the said congress. The town of Amiens was celebrated before the revolution, for its manufactures in linen and woollen cloth, which, it is said, employed 30,000 people. This ancient town is remarkable for having been taken by the Spaniards, in 1597, by the following singular stratagem. A number of soldiers, disguised like peasants, conducted a cart loaded with walnuts, and let a quantity of them fall from the machine, just as the gate was opened; and while the unsuspecting guard was gathering up the nuts, the Spanish army entered, and took possession of the town. It was retaken by Henry IV. Amiens is on the road from Calais to Paris, 75 miles north of that city.

The 9th of November was celebrated, in London, with unusual magnificence. Sir John Eamer, the new lord mayor, thought it his duty as a soldier to revive the *Man in Armour*. A dragoon undertook to be the champion, and he was fitted with armour from the tower. He was dressed up in the *cuirass* and *helmet* of William the Conqueror, the *gloves* of John of Gaunt, and the *hose* of Henry VIII. Sir John's corps likewise attended to do him honour. The dinner was sumptuous. It consisted of above 2000 dishes; and the hall was adapted to the accommodation of 4000 persons.—Sir William Staines, the late lord mayor, on his health being drank, returned thanks in a short speech, in which he said—"I assure you, with truth,  
that

that these thanks flow from a grateful heart. When I look back on my past life, and know that I have been advanced literally from a dunghill to the chief magistracy of this great city, I bow down with gratitude to providence. Providence, ever gracious, ordains all things! Providence superintends all things! Providence giveth strength to the weak! In my humble exertion to fulfil the various duties of that high and important office, from which I am about to retire, if I have the good fortune to merit your approbation, and to have given satisfaction to my fellow citizens at large, I retire with pleasure again to enjoy the comfort and happiness of domestic society. I hope to spend the remainder of my days in peace, and when the time comes, I shall die content."

In the month of December, a French fleet of 20 ships sailed from Brest, to restore order in St. Domingo, where a dangerous insurrection of the negroes had broken out, under *Toussaint*, their *sabte* chief. In Guadaloupe also there was an insurrection of the mulattoes, who not only refused to assimilate with the *whites*, but wished to command them.

In 1802, on the 6th of January, a court martial was held on board the *Gladiator*, in Portsmouth harbour, for the trial of the mutineers, late of his majesty's ship *Temeraire*, whose behaviour was very *seditionous*, after receiving information, that they must go to the West Indies, to assist in settling the disturbances there. They were found guilty and executed. "Order is Heaven's first law;" and there is no possible situation, in which order and discipline are more necessary than in the navy.

**FINIS.**





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